

# THE LEADER AND SATURDAY ANALYST;

A REVIEW AND RECORD OF POLITICAL, LITERARY, ARTISTIC, AND SOCIAL EVENTS.

No. 516.  
New Series, No. 6.

February 11th, 1860.

Price 5d.  
Stamped, 6d.

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ments for week ending Saturday, February 18th.

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Monday, and during the Week, will be performed a New and Original Comedy, in three acts, by H. Holl, Esq., entitled CAUGHT IN A TRAP. Principal Characters by Messrs. G. Melville, F. Matthews, Cathcart, Garden, Daly, Collier, and Collett; Mesdames C. Lelecoq, Clifford, and Mrs. Weston. After which, those musical prodigies, the Delepiere Family, will give their unrivalled entertainment. To conclude with the new grand comic Christmas burlesque Pantomime entitled JACK THE GIANT KILLER; or, Harlequin King Arthur, and the Knights of the Round Table. Jack, Miss Louise Keeley; Harlequin, Mr. Cormack; Pantaloon, Mr. Paulo; Columbine, Miss Caroline Adams; and Clown, Mr. A. Forrest.

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### ST. JAMES'S HALL.

THE VOCAL ASSOCIATION. Wednesday, February 15, at 8, Middle. Parepa, Mdile. Marie Wieck, and Choir of 200 voices. Mdile. Parepa will sing "The Shadow Song" from Dinorah; the "Laughing Song," from Mameo Lescant; and the solos in Mendelssohn's Psalm, "Hear my Prayer." New Part Songs by the Choir. Conductor, M. Benedict. Tickets 1s., 3s.; Sofa and Balcony Stalls, 5s. each.

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## Wild Sports in the United

STATES.—The Hon. Grantley F. Berkeley having returned from his visit to the Prairies (made exclusively for THE FIELD), is now narrating his experiences and exploits in the columns of THE FIELD, to be continued weekly. Mr. Berkeley's success in Hunting the Buffalo and other wild animals has been unprecedented. THE FIELD is devoted to a record of Sports, Pastimes, Natural History, and all Country Pursuits. Published weekly, price 6d.; or a copy in return for seven stamps. Subscription, 7s. 6d. per quarter; 15s. 2d. half-yearly; 30s. 4d. per year.—Office, 346 Strand, London, W.C.

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## THE TREATY.

CONTRARY to what was intended, the Commercial Treaty with France has been published several days before the Chancellor of the Exchequer has been able to make his financial statement for the year. The public curiosity has thus been prematurely gratified to the detriment of ministers, and the proportionate advantage of Opposition. No doubt it is a bore to have the taste of the pill in your mouth, even for a short time before you have currant jelly; but so it is, and there is no help for it now. Perhaps, upon the whole, Mr. GLADSTONE may have no great cause to complain; for whatever may have been the disappointment felt at what the treaty *does not* contain, time has been given for it to pass away, before the many consolations of the Budget have been revealed. Without adverting to the latter, it may not be amiss to consider the specific merits and demerits of the former. The Budget may or may not be adopted by Parliament, in part or in the whole. Whig Governments have never shown themselves immovably obstinate in refusing to remodel their measures of finance. It seems, indeed, to be one of their traditions, that a mere money question, a matter of a few millions more or less, to the vulgar tax-paying community can ever be fairly considered a point of honour with them. Lord ALTHORP, the most popular of Whig Chancellors of the Exchequer, did not mind coming down to the House on a Monday, and telling it to rub out of its recollection all he had said on the Friday before about what he should want to meet the current outgoings of the year, as in point of fact he had quite forgotten the beer duties. Sir CHARLES WOOD, another of our heaven-born financiers, was never indeed known to admit himself wrong in any of his calculations: but sooner than resign we know that he agreed to take back his Budget three times in one session. Mr. GLADSTONE has indeed been brought up in a different school, and might possibly evince less pliancy; yet there are those who believe that the additional week afforded him for reflection, after the warning division on Mr. WISE's motion, was not altogether thrown away; and that in the intervals of gargling for that not inopportune sorethroat, many minor points were reconsidered. But the terms of the treaty with France having once been agreed to between the two Governments, cannot be so easily modified. Such as they are they must stand for the present, and we must make up our minds to make the best of them, for we do not suppose that even Lord DERBY, rash as he is, would like to accept the responsibility of repudiating what has been done as the joint act of the two Governments. Friendship with France, after such repudiation, would of course be at an end; and when those who have been friends abruptly cease to be so, we know pretty well how they usually regard each other. Without rescinding the treaty, however, its details may fairly be criticised; and as in point of fact we know that they are certain to be so, and from different points of view, it becomes our duty to set before our readers the principal grounds of the exceptions about to be taken.

It is said with truth, that to bind ourselves for a term of years not to impose duties for revenue on articles like brandy and wine beyond a certain fixed amount, and not to impose any duties whatever on the various fabrics of silk, wool, leather, jewellery, lace, paper, &c., in many of which our French neighbours excel, is improvident as a matter of finance, and contrary to principle as regards free trade. Mr. GLADSTONE contends that, fiscally, we shall lose nothing in the long run by either the abatement or abolition. He believes that foreign wine and spirits will be consumed to an additional extent, sufficient to reimburse the Treasury for what it is about to forego in high duties; and he contends that articles of manufacture which compete with similar products of our own, ought under no circumstances to form the objects of taxation when brought from abroad, inasmuch as they cannot do so without becoming the objects of protective duties. We own that, in our opinion, it is easier to defend the provisions of the treaty in both respects on wholly different ground. Mr. GLADSTONE will not be able to convince plain folks easily that the class which is to have the benefit of cheapened cognac and claret will bear exclusively the burthen of making good the temporary loss that all agree must be incurred in trying the experiment; and when it was determined that we should go bargaining about mutual reductions with our friends on the other side of the channel, we must say we think it is a pity that the only cessions we should have required from them were in favour of those great and flourishing interests that need no further help, while all the concessions made by us appear to have been in favour of articles of comparative luxury, whim, or show. Manchester and Leeds, Staffordshire and Warwickshire were already busy, and likely to be so. The mining and manufacturing interests, generally, have seldom indeed been in a more prosperous state. They are, no doubt, highly pleased at the proposed change, and no one ought to grudge

them the advantage it is likely to bring. But we are bound to acknowledge as impartial jurors, whose verdict as between the classes must be given without fear, favour, or affection, that another great interest had a paramount claim to the care of our Government in their dealings with France. We need hardly say that we allude to the Shipping interest, just now seriously depressed, and at all times deserving the peculiar consideration of the rulers of this country. The differential duties on British vessels entering French ports from any third country, are most injurious to our commercial marine. It is one thing to propose retaliating duties here on French vessels, and it is quite another thing when negotiating a Free Trade Treaty to allow this odious and oppressive system to remain intact. We do not wish to impute to ministers forgetfulness of the interests of their country in this matter, but we must give utterance to our regret that if they made the demand for equalized tonnage dues, they were not more firm in insisting upon them. Our fops might very well have been left to pay sixpence a pair more for their gloves, and our fine ladies a few shillings a yard more for their velvet and lace, if something more nearly approaching to common justice had been extorted for our mercantile marine engaged in the carrying trade from distant parts of the world. We treat French vessels as we treat our own; why should not France reciprocate our cosmopolitan liberality?

But, as we have said, we much prefer to rest the defence of the new commercial treaty on other grounds. It is a great political fact,—a fact worth ten times the utmost fiscal loss its enemies charge to its debit,—and that not only morally speaking, but in monies numbered. Already it has caused the army and navy estimates for the year, as they were originally framed, to be cut down very materially. But, bearing in recollection that we are not yet emerged from a military fever, following a national ague of unexampled intensity, it cannot be supposed that we shall see at the first blush all the good effects that are likely to ensue in this respect. Every year, moreover, will inevitably increase the number of those in each country the rate of whose profits and wages will in future depend upon the preservation of peace. The Chancellor of the Exchequer declares that within a very limited time, the experiment he thus proposes to make will, by its financial results, vindicate itself. We say, whether it does so or not, we shall be large gainers thereby; and that, taking into account calmly the whole of the consequences, were the whole of the revenue permanently lost which is now about to be temporarily given up, the treaty would be worth the money.

## THE COMING PARLIAMENTARY STRUGGLE.

THE battle of the Budget is certain to engross public attention during the coming week, to the exclusion of all other subjects of a political nature. Rival systems of finance and abstract economic theories will furnish forth the weapons of the fray: but weapons are one thing, and the motives which impel men to seek them out and use them are another. An egotistic crotcheteer like Lord OVERSTONE, or a savings-bank squire bewitched with the notion that he was born, sixty years since, to be a finance minister, like Sir HENRY WILLOUGHBY, may really take an interest in the questions at issue for sake of their intrinsic merits. But as neither of them has so much as a SANCHO PANZA to follow him, they may, with some half-dozen other arithmetical knights-errant, be allowed to do their solitary tiltings on the flank of the armies to which they do not properly belong, without further consideration or notice. The bulk of the forces engaged on either side arm for the fight in no visionary or romantic mood. The various leaders they follow are stimulated in the main by the passion for power, which, though it degenerates sometimes into factious spite or cupidity, is not always ignoble. We hate sentimentalism in politics, and therefore we eschew the stale hypocrisy of believing that Lord PALMERSTON is actuated only by self-forgetful patriotism, and that Lord DERBY is too rich and highborn to care for office, save to oblige the QUEEN and to promote the public good. We believe nothing of the kind, and we do not know any man out of Bedlam who does. On the contrary, we know, and as we know we think it far better to say, that Whigs and Tories are animated mainly by the desire they never cease to deny but never cease to feel, of beating one another at the game of parliamentary ascendancy. Of course there are shades of difference in the keenness of personal appetite, and corresponding varieties in the zeal which individuals display in the contest. Mr. DISRAELI may be excused for being more impatient for decisive victory than Lord STANLEY, who has a longer life before him, and who can better afford to abide the chapter of accidents. The right hon. member for Bucks has had quite enough of the manna of the wilderness, and would like once more to spend a summer in the promised land of power, were it only to make sure of a city of refuge beyond Jordan. Sir JOHN PAKINGTON and Sir EDWARD BULWER would like uncom-

monly to march in procession up Downing Street again, with trumpets braying and colours flying, and a hope in their bursting hearts that the spectators might take them for real old English baronets risen up in wrath to save the country; while shrewd Mr. HENLEY and scrupulous Mr. WALPOLE will probably vote in council for further delay before making a grand attack. So, on the opposite side, Mr. GLADSTONE having a character for originality to support, and being subject to the singular weakness (among Whigs or Peelites) of persuading himself that every one of his own measures, and every bit of each of them, is not only sound in logic but indispensable to the nation's weal and his own personal honour, is ready to risk all upon the issue of an early pitched battle. He would rather break up the Government and go into opposition once more, than be suspected, for sake of five thousand a-year and a seat with his back to the horses in the Family Coach, of consenting to be a humdrum Chancellor of the Exchequer. It is essential for the maintenance of the belief in his idolised idiosyncrasy, that he should show himself able to do something for the Whigs, which none of their BARINGS, WOODS, or LEWISES would have had the wit to conceive or the pluck to attempt; and he is quite resolved to play this rôle at the risk of upsetting the whole concern into the ditch. Beside him sits a prompter, swayed by very different feelings, but who, if we mistake not, has had not a little to do with precipitating the coming struggle. Mr. MILNER GIBSON has no more romance in his composition than Mr. GLADSTONE has of the talent for political intrigue. The member for Ashton, on the other hand, possesses unwearied powers of contrivance, plot, and personal diplomacy. The peculiarities of his actual position would, in themselves, deter him from going to sleep in his berth, were he ever so well disposed to do so. Without following family or great fortune, he has contrived to work his way to the Cabinet after five-and-twenty years of a chequered and laborious parliamentary life; but he has only been admitted, after all, upon the Oriental condition of leaving his slippers at the door. He well knows that to gather his feet under him on the Downing Street divan, and to keep merely puffing his chibouque sympathetically beside Lord JOHN, could only end in his being forgotten out of doors, and no longer deemed worth having by those within. He therefore set about stimulating the peculiar ambition of the two most ambitious men in the Cabinet—Mr. GLADSTONE and Lord JOHN RUSSELL—to take a line in their departments respectively, which should keep alive in men's minds the distinctiveness of their personal influence in Government, and not indirectly increase his value to them as a confidential auxiliary. Against any amount of resistance which either of them might thereby provoke from certain of the palace members of the Cabinet, "the author of all mischief"—as the Stafford House Whigs love to call him—held out the promise of active support from his old allies of the Manchester school. Mr. COEDEN agreed to become a secret negotiator with the French Government for a commercial treaty; so secret indeed, that even at the Board of Trade the idea is said to have never been whispered outside the president's room, until the *coup* was actually made, and the terms of the treaty agreed upon. Mr. BRIGHT proved somewhat more difficult to deal with at first, but he also has been worked round, first into letting off the democratic steam for Reform he had previously tried to get up; and next into pledging himself to back the Government through thick and thin in their financial and foreign policy. What real amount of strength the member for Birmingham will be able to bring them on a pinch, time must show.

In the equally balanced condition of the great parties, it is clear that the fate of the impending struggle must be decided by the part which the Bashi-Bazouks below the gangway may be induced to take at the last moment. The number of these, both English and Irish, is far from being inconsiderable, and they are not likely to be rendered fewer by the infatuated step just taken of conferring the Chief Commissionership of Woods and Works on the Honourable WILLIAM COWPER.

The Whigs, in matters of patronage, are indeed incorrigible. Against all remonstrance, two years ago, they insisted on making Lord SUFFOLK's brother Distributor of Stamps, and the Hon. W. COWPER's brother-in-law Treasurer of a County Court—jobs which it is well known did them more ultimate harm than even the CLANRICARDE scandal, and for this obvious reason, that it touched the jealous self-interest of a much wider class. And now we have an equally wilful and wanton abuse of patronage perpetrated in favour of the nearest connection of the Premier, and that at the very moment when policy dictated the semblance, at least, of regard to political services and abilities. From the Catholic section Ministers can hope but for little support. Some ten or a dozen votes of Irish Ultramontanists will no doubt be recorded against them; perhaps an equal number of Liberal

Catholics will be found to side with them; and the remainder will stay away. How many discontented Whigs and Radicals will imitate their example remains to be seen.

#### AUSTRIA AND THE WHIGS.

WE would much rather praise than blame the present Government, and we hoped that the noble sentiments in the QUEEN'S Speech would be followed by a policy which the British nation could thoroughly endorse and sustain. From Lord JOHN RUSSELL himself, however, come indications that this is not the case; and he seems inclined to prove to the Italians that, although it may be dangerous to have a Tory for an enemy, it is at the best a melancholy and partial satisfaction to have a Whig for a friend.

Up to the commencement of the Italian war, his Lordship's caution and advice to Victor EMMANUEL was to be quiet; and Austria herself was scarcely more opposed to the energetic conduct of Count CAVOUR. Happily for Italy, and the future prospects of Hungary, the great Sardinian statesman scorned the feeble counsels of the English minister, and continued a course which brought Austria to humiliation, and gave freedom to Central Italy. This being accomplished, Lord JOHN RUSSELL concurred in the propriety of a Congress to recognise the change the people had made, and give the sanction of public law to the enlargement of the dominions attached to the Sardinian crown. When the Congress scheme failed, his Lordship commenced a negotiation, of which he gave some particulars on Tuesday night, and which appears in some respects open to grave objection.

To the first proposition, that Austria and France should both abstain from interference in the internal affairs of Italy, no objection is at first sight apparent; but it becomes evident upon consideration that it would not be for the interest of Italy that France should agree to it, unless Austria were tied down to very strict conditions, which would soon be found quite incompatible with her holding the Quadrangle, or retaining Venetia. The second proposition, for the withdrawal of French troops from the Roman states, was right enough; but acting upon it would involve consequences which, as we shall show, his lordship is anxious to avert. In the third proposition, as explained by the noble lord himself, "it was proposed that the Governments of Europe should not interfere in the internal government of Venetia, and that no proposal should be made in order to regulate the internal government of Venetia by the Emperor of Austria." Now, considering that Venetia is the place in which the Austrians rule with extraordinary brutality and atrocity, and that their conduct in that territory is intimately connected with the peace of Italy, this proposal to abstain even from remonstrance is one of the most extraordinary that a British minister could make. But it is, in fact, worse than it seems at first sight, and is directed to stop the action of Sardinia in favour of Venetian liberty. It is precisely the half-hearted, and we must add, half-witted, game Lord JOHN RUSSELL played last year with Tuscany, Lombardy, the Duchies, and the Romagna. If Sardinia had then isolated herself from the common cause of Italy, she would have failed in a plain moral duty, and would in consequence have been exposed to revolutionary outbreaks, as well as to the alarming pressure of the Austrian despotism. She was right then, in acting upon broader conceptions of right and obligation than the Whig mind seems able to conceive; and she will be right now, if she again scorns the mean-spirited advice, and declines to abandon the national cause of Italy, until the whole country is free.

The fourth proposition involves an interference with the internal concerns of Central Italy which no English minister should have ventured to make. As explained by his lordship on Tuesday, "it was to the effect that the King of Sardinia should be asked not to send any troops into Central Italy, until there should be an opportunity, by a new election and a new vote of the states and provinces of Central Italy, to obtain a clear and unbiassed expression of their wishes with respect to their future destiny."

Central Italy has already, in a legal and constitutional way, expressed her desire; and for an external power like England to call upon her to dissolve the patriotic and fairly elected assemblies by which this was done, and place the issue at the disposal of a fresh electoral struggle, is, to say the least of it, a most reprehensible interference with her internal affairs. It is said that the Emperor of the French proposed that the new election should take place by universal suffrage, but was told that it would not be convenient for the British Cabinet to sanction that principle in Italy, at a time when they were concocting a Reform Bill, intended to exclude the bulk of the English artisans.

We presume Lord JOHN RUSSELL meant the scheme to be accepted or rejected as a whole, and that he would not have asked



Sardinia to engage to refrain from sending troops into Central Italy, and at the same time have permitted Austria to have continued her preparations for a sudden and fraudulent attack. It is fortunate for all parties, herself excepted, that Austria has declined to accept the doctrine of non-intervention, or "to recognise a state of things in Italy that has arisen from insurrection," and eminently characteristic that she has coupled this declaration with falsehoods, which Lord JOHN RUSSELL gravely detailed to the House. Austria declares "that she has no intention of interfering in the affairs of Central Italy," and "that she is not going to send any troops beyond her own frontiers." In spirit, if not in letter, both these statements are untrue. Recruiting is going on at Vienna for the Pope and the King of Naples, not only among the vagabonds of the place, but among discharged soldiers who have seen eight years' service and are ready for the field. Additional fortifications are erected in Austrian Italy, and large reinforcements have recently been sent to Mantua, near which place is stationed the Duke of Modena, with a little army wearing the Austrian uniform, and not to be distinguished from the Imperial troops. It is very difficult to get accurate accounts of the forces which are threatening Central Italy, but it is reported that the Duke of Modena has with him about 4,000 men, who are virtually, and in many cases actually, Austrian troops; and this little army can, at any moment, be surreptitiously increased from the garrison of Mantua, which is out of all proportion to the requirements of defence. The Pope has, probably, 4,000 so-called Swiss, as many Austro-Bavarians, and as many Italians. At any rate four regiments have been sent to Ancona, and they are considered as much Austrian as before they entered the service of the Church.

In Vienna, as well as in Italy, a renewal of war in some shape or another is confidently expected, and from present appearances it seems likely to take the form of a clandestine attack by Austria upon some portion of Central Italy. If the Pope moves it will be an Austrian move, whatever the HAPSBURG Government may say, and the same may be affirmed of the King of Naples or the Duke of Modena.

If Austria is determined to hold Venetia, and not to recognise the independence of Central Italy and her right to annex herself to Sardinia, she is morally at war both with the people and the Government which they have chosen. She is also physically at war with them, by supplying soldiers to their avowed enemies, and by crowding their open and vulnerable frontier with masses of troops. That this condition of tension can last long without explosion is in the highest degree improbable; and no one appears able to influence the infatuated sovereign at Vienna with a single just, honourable, or prudent idea. We must look to the decay of Rome or Byzantium for a parallel to FRANCIS JOSEPH's course. He avoids all means of knowledge, or the society of enlightened men. When not engaged in schemes of violence, or listening to the evil counsels of priests, his time is passed in debauchery; and what may be the last hours of the last Emperor of Austria are said to be divided between his equestrian mistress and bottles of champagne. The young woman alluded to is nominally engaged to tame the Imperial horses; but is suspected to be employed by the Jesuits to exert her Rarey powers upon their Imperial master.

Count RECHBERG, Count BUOL, Count THUN, and Baron BACH are the men who represent the policy of the decrepit empire. The first is a proud incapable absolutist; the second engaged at Rome in those intrigues of which the Pope is the focus; the third got up the Concordat, with the help of Baron BACH, and is now signalising himself by exciting the alarming Protestant quarrel in Hungary.

It is marvellous that the Whigs should still express hopes for the stability of Austria, and under any circumstances assist her in retaining the Venetian territory; and it is to be remarked that Lord JOHN RUSSELL has received no encouragement from Russia, for whom he is too liberal; while Prussia exhibited her usual policy of cowardice, and waited to know what France and Austria would think.

What Austria thinks is now definitely made known, and Lord JOHN RUSSELL has received a lesson against foolish speaking, for, in rejecting his schemes, Count RECHBERG reminds him that last April he defended the existence of foreign domination in Italy, by appealing to the Treaty of Vienna, which he declared to be "the charter by which Europe holds its present distribution of territory." His lordship will have to learn that human rights are above all conventions of potentates, and he had better tell Austria with frankness that Europe has outgrown the Treaty of 1815; and that if it were not so, she would not be entitled to its protection after she had violated it by the absorption of Cracow.

If a renewal of war in Italy is to be prevented, it will not be

by inviting Sardinia to abandon the national cause, but by inducing Austria to sell Venetia, and let the Pope and the King of Naples reckon with their subjects as well as they may. If the Austrian Court will not bring its mind to this conclusion, it will drift, or willingly move, towards a renewal of hostilities, and for such a catastrophe the Hungarians wait in confidence, that for them as well as for the Italians the hour of liberty must arrive.

#### THE VOLCANO IN VENETIA.

PLINY the Elder, when he saw the great eruption of Vesuvius, compared its appearance to a vast tree of fire, whose red boughs rose slowly from the orifice of the crater, and spread luminous, wider and wider, till they overshadowed, with broad crimson shadows, the mountain from which they had emerged.

Such a tree of fire as PLINY saw is now rising through the soil of the Austrian territory of Venetia. Already the keener sights can distinguish the topmost twigs, piercing through the ground at the foot of the very ramparts of Verona. Oh, for another DANTE to cry Woe! to those Tedeschi who linger too long under its consuming shade, when that volcano tree of revolution shall jet forth again in all the fulness of its destructive majesty.

Dismissing our simile, let us draw attention to the unmistakable signs of revolt that every week's letters bring us from the last refuge of the Austrians in Italy. To-day it is seven officers who have been poniarded or shot in the streets of Verona—tomorrow, a popular demonstration in the theatre at Venice; now some sympathetic murmurings at Naples—now a groan from handcuffed Mantua. No one accustomed to study the political barometer but must feel that there is a storm in the air, as surely as the farmer does when he sees his pigs uneasy or his cat washing her face with her paws. The straw is a small thing; but, thrown up, it tells, certainly, how the wind blows.

Every traveller who arrives from Italy informs us that the regions of freedom and slavery are now as easily distinguishable as sun and shadow, day and night. Happy free faces receive you at the gates of Milan; you no longer are dragged before a sort of court-martial of insolent and threatening officials. A cloud seems lifted from the city. The citizens walk with a bolder step. Milan is no longer the prison fortress that it was in the Austrian time. It is the same, they tell us, all the way to Peschiera. As you are swept by the train through oliveyard and vineyard, rows of mulberries, and yellow gourd patches, the people sing and talk free and bold, and are frank, gentle, happy, and proud of the liberty they helped to win.

Pass the Peschiera frontier, get out of sight of the blue Lago di Garda and the enchanted Tyrol mountains, pass the beacon tower of Solferino on its scorched hill, and a great darkness falls over the scene. Every third person is a brutal defiant soldier, or a sly, sleek, effeminate priest. Detentions become longer, military officials demand your passport as if they were demanding your purse. You are locked in, shouldered about, questioned as if you were a criminal; your luggage is punctured and rifled, and at last you enter Verona, tired and vexed, through a town's length of turfen mounds, and through a gate of enormous strength. It is the same at Venice. Two antagonistic races—races that never can blend—fill the streets. You see the Italian scowl, you see the Austrian officer curl his lip, and you feel that such a state of things cannot last.

Everywhere there is a sense of restlessness among the people. Watchwords are invented, lampoons written, telegraphic signs arranged to express sympathy with GARIBALDI and hatred for the Austrian. The smallest event is caught up and used to express popular feeling. For instance, the other day in Mantua, with true military love of interference, Baron ARLOZ, a great man, no less than the Imperial Royal Lieutenant, and Field Marshal and Governor Commandant of the city and fortress of Mantua, issued an edict in favour of crinolines, of all things in the world. The very next Sunday nearly all the ladies of Mantua appeared without crinolines, just to spite the Baron, and the few who retained them were followed by mobs of boys, crying out "Abasso i crinolini!" These are small things, but they show a great hatred. No wonder that the Austrian garrisons begin to lose moral courage, and to feel savage and distrustful at seeing every Italian face blacken as they approach. The Commandante, as he sips his lemonade in the café, deserted when he enters, knows that the great tree of fire is putting out its first buds under his very feet. The Austrian captain, who at the opera hears the people cheer when there is some chance allusion to Freedom, loses heart, because he feels that the fiery tree of the volcano has struck its roots under the very playhouse where he is.

Let diplomatists squabble and lie over their maps and parch-

ments; let ministers, to balance Europe, take out a spoonful of land in this scale and put a pinch more in that one—this we have all learnt to confess and believe—that every human being, and every nation, which is but an aggregation of human beings, has an indelible right to freedom. Let the ideal balance of Europe be what it may, there must be no bunch of chains thrown in to equalize the scales. Venice and Verona have committed no crime, that they should be trodden underfoot by the German. They have had as great antecedents as Milan or Florence. They in their time have done as much to avert evil from Europe and to advance its civilization. They have a glorious past of freedom and empire to look back upon, a past happiness that makes the present misery only the more intolerable.

Is it in human nature—especially in Italian human nature—to see others happy and not wish to share that happiness? Every day hundreds of travellers pass from Verona to Milan as from a city into green fields, as from a prison into summer sunshine; they pass through countless sentinels and guarded gates into a sort of fairy country of liberty and ease—where free speeches are made, free books read, free songs sung, and everywhere ebb and flow through the streets a people exulting in new-found liberty, asking the strangers no questions—setting no spies on them—troubling them and soldiering them about nothing—no despotic Custom-house there, no fraudulent paper money. The astonished man from Verona says and does what he pleases—goes where he pleases; passport officers bow to him, sentinels smile and chatter with him. He can hardly believe his own eyes or ears—but a few miles from poor Verona, and free as a Swiss or an Englishman—"Corpo di Bacco!—By the Holy Mother, it is a miracle."

But he must return. Every mile from laughing Milan the enchantment dwindles, the fog thickens, the sunshine dies away; the old millstone comes round his neck, the old pressure on his heart; his eyes acquire again their sidelong stealthiness, his tongue is tied by the old suspicious timidity. Again he feels the chain gall his hands; a rough, stern, threatening voice rouses him—it is the guard at Verona demanding his passport. Another rougher voice calls for his luggage, to search it for suspicious articles from the dangerous country. Home he slinks, feeling, like a returned convict, ashamed of bearing patiently his slavery.

The great abstract idea of slavery is soon grasped by an enslaved people; but if they be impulsive, hot-blooded, sensitive people, the thought never leaves them day and night; it never becomes habitual, it is never disregarded because it is habitual. Austrian papers may tell the Italians that they are lightly taxed and gently governed, that they are not plundered, and that their country costs Austria more than the revenue she obtains from it. But it is the small annoyances that bring about revolutions, when the people are ripe for freedom. It is the GESLER cap that precipitates the inundation of blood, and pulls up the hatches. Some riot in a theatre about a GARIBALDI song, some street fray about a drunken Austrian beating an Italian waiter, and we may hear to-morrow that the Piazza of Venice is piled with German corpses, and that Verona is free. The longer the tree of fire is growing, the more dreadful is its advent; the slower the volcano, the more terrible its destroying fury.

Individual men sometimes change suddenly, but nations never. The prodigal has grown suddenly a miser before this, the ascetic suddenly developed into the debauchee; but we know of no instance where tyrant races have suddenly grown merciful, or surrendered a sway which brought no happiness in its wake. Would that some divine influence would suddenly whisper in Austria's ear, and persuade her to strengthen her power by concentration; to secure Hungary by kindness and justice; to retrench her foreign armies; and to devote herself to internal improvement.

But are we not foolish idealists to expect this of any nation, much less of Austria, whose special fault is obstinacy, whose policy is Jesuitical, whose Emperor is no SOLOMON, who is sore from recent defeats and ranking under wounds scarcely yet scarfed over? No. She will, as she is doing, double her armies in Venetia, strike heavier with her rod of iron, double her gates, and treble her sentinels. She will not surrender a mulberry tree or a gondola; she will go on heaping up mounds and waterside batteries round Venice and Verona; she will, in the madness of her irritated pride, spread wide more HAPSBURG banners in the Italian air—denying and laughing to scorn all rumours of the coming volcano and its tree of fire. The ground gets hotter under her feet, but she thinks it is the warmth of spring, and smiles scornfully from her fortified hills around Verona, and from her grassy terraces that face the Adriatic.

Misfortune is a hard school, says the proverb; and the wisest man is he who pays least for his schooling. We all go through that school, but at a very different cost. Austria seems

determined to be longest of all the European family at her lessons; like the BOURBONS, she learns nothing and forgets nothing. She will not improve. She doubts the volcano coming, as the people of Sodom doubted. She, like they, listens to no warning.

There seems to be an attraction about tyranny similar to that which is in vice. The forger who has spent a few years on the very edge of detection, being robbed by thieving servants, giving parties to people who despise him, being rolled about in a carriage that deprives him of healthy exercise, who spends his days trembling at every knock and every letter, seems to have gained but a poor return, in these things, for his anxiety, for his anguish of conscience, for his final, inevitable ruin; yet for these poor rewards forgers every day swindle, cheat, and lie. So it is with nations. It seems a poor reward for Austria's expense and danger of holding Venetia, that her officers are assassinated, her armies detested, her subordinates regarded with hatred and abhorrence. She gets no real power; no city is true to her; no Italian but would, if he could, let in the enemy if he was at the gates. Italy weakens her armies, drains her treasure; yet still she draws tighter the chain, and holds Venice and Verona as if they were double shields guarding the very heart of her empire.

But there is a will that is more inflexible than even the Austrian. There is a weapon more deadly than the German sword. That will is the resolve for freedom in a nation that deserves it. That weapon is the sword that Freedom uses to sever the chain from a nation that has earned a right to liberation. Austria may squander her gold in heaping up camp after camp, till Verona stand as a stone city girdled by an earthen city. She may darken her hills with cannon, but they will all, mound and cannon, melt and wither, and be as nothing when the volcano tree rises, in the spring day of Freedom, and strikes out its flaming arms as a beacon for Italy.

#### THE FIRST BLOW IN THE FINANCE BATTLE.

MORE notice is due to the success of Mr. WISE's motion for the appointment of a Committee at the beginning of every session of Parliament, to inquire into the expenditure on miscellaneous and civil service, than it has generally received. It is the first efficient measure adopted by the House of Commons to bring under its supervision and control the continually increasing expenditure of the Government. Since the first establishment of the metropolitan police by Sir ROBERT PEEL, if not before, the practice of providing for the well-being of society by minutely prescribed regulations, enforced by a species of military organization, has here become excessively prevalent. The consequence is, that the cost of our civil government increased from £5,660,400 in 1840 to £9,085,636 in 1858. We take these figures from the Statistical Abstract, subtracting from the total expenditure the charge for the whole debt, and the cost of navy, army, and ordnance: the remainder is the cost of the civil government. This is a safer mode of getting at the broad facts than by referring to the estimates, which do not year by year include the same or similar items; and on this showing the cost of the civil government between 1840 and 1858, increased sixty per cent.

In the same interval the population increased, according to the calculation of the Registrar-General, about twenty-four per cent. The increase in the cost of the civil government, therefore, or the payment for its services, increased two and a half times as much as the number of people to be governed. Those services, too, have not improved since 1840. The functions of Government have been so imperfectly fulfilled, that the public has been often compelled, by administrative reform associations and similar means, to goad the Government into the due performance of its ordinary duties. It has been obliged, in fact, to do that which it paid official men for doing. It would seem, therefore, that the efficiency of the Government is not great in proportion to its costliness. We now get better food, better clothing, better houses, better means of travelling, better newspapers, and better services generally from all people in business, at a less cost than formerly. The services of individuals to one another become, in fact, more efficient and less costly as society enlarges; the services of Government to the people, on the contrary, become less efficient and more costly.

This striking contrast is made more striking and deeply impressive by recollecting that, in these eighteen years, civilization has made a great progress. We have learned many moral and physical facts of importance which have great influence over our lives. We know more, and behave better.

Our improved knowledge of electricity and magnetism, for example, has enabled us to establish a wonderfully rapid communication with the most distant parts of society, which brings the influence of the whole more effectually and more constantly



to bear on the conduct of individuals. Numerous as the ill-doing part is, it ever exists only in a small proportion to the well-doing part. The consequence, therefore, of this extensive and rapid communication is to increase very much the power of the well-doing, well-intentioned public; and we now hear almost daily of some profligate-thief or scoundrel murderer arrested in his flight to the Antipodes. The telegraph is so much swifter than even the rail, that no criminal can now reasonably hope to escape detection and punishment. The hope of reaping enjoyment from criminality is at an end. By means of rapid communication, too, the highest political authorities are rendered additionally subservient to public opinion, and, without speaking hyperbolically, we can affirm that by the same electrical power the well-intentioned public can catch a murderer, stop a war, and every where promote peace and freedom.

Within eighteen years we have become thoroughly convinced that freedom of industry is essential to social welfare. This is moral knowledge, as important as physical knowledge. It is an additional and most useful guide to conduct, inducing governments and individuals to abstain from much mutual meddling. In consequence of the progress in moral knowledge, HER MAJESTY was able to inform the Parliament that both pauperism and crime were decreasing. Those who have closely examined the criminal records are well aware that this pleasant decrease is in no degree due to the exertions of the Government. In spite of an improved and extended police, in spite of new and more severe tests of pauperism, in spite of all the punishments which could be invented, it is notorious and certain that both criminality and pauperism increased continually and incessantly till 1842, when our chief commercial and fiscal reforms were begun. It is equally notorious and certain that, with slight vacillations the consequence of dear food and war, they have continually decreased since 1842. They increased so long as the old system of restrictions was maintained, and decreased when it was lessened. Having regard to the increase of population, crime and pauperism have decreased very remarkably since food, by the repeal of bad laws, became cheap and employment abundant. By the progress of knowledge, the people have improved, and there has been less occasion for the services of Government as the cost of them has increased.

The abolition of corn and navigation laws and of numerous restrictions was an abatement of executive functions. Fewer Custom-house officers than before were required; Government had less to do, and should have cost less. Moreover, its functions, as in carrying letters, are performed at a less cost in proportion as the population is condensed. As men live together they are more under the control of one another, and require a smaller amount of extraneous coercive power to preserve order. An increase of people, an increase of knowledge and advance in civilization, make the task of government lighter, and should make it less costly. Hence the great progress which society has made in civilization since 1840, renders the contrast between the service of Government to the people and their mutual services more striking. While they increase continually in efficiency and cheapness its service becomes less efficient, and dearer—a burden for ever increasing. Should the proportionate increase between its cost and the amount of population go on as in the interval 1840—58, the discrepancy between the two in the end will make the Government unbearable. Already a demand to lessen its expenditure is heard throughout the land. In obedience to it, and in opposition to all the dependants and hangers on of Ministers, both Whigs and Tories, Mr. WISE carried his motion by a hundred and twenty-one to ninety-three. The House of Commons, then, has declared it to be desirable to appoint a Committee to control the Government expenditure. This is almost unprecedented. It really takes from the Executive Government the power of determining in civil matters what it shall do, and how it shall be paid for what it does. Such a motion would not have been carried, had not the representatives of the people been convinced that the time has arrived when the increase of the cost of government must be stayed, or even very considerably lessened. Its increasing demands have exhausted the patience of the taxpayers, and a majority of twenty-eight of their representatives has practically informed every ministry that it must earnestly begin financial reform.

Mr. Wise, referring to estimates which we regard as somewhat fallacious bases for comparison, stated that in 1839 the estimates for civil services amounted to £2,651,000, and in 1859 to £7,880,000, which gives an increase three times as great as we have stated. He gave the following illustrations of the manner in which the items had increased:—

ESTIMATES.	
1839.	1859.
Public buildings, parks, &c. . . . .	£197,000    £793,000
Salaries and expenses, Public Departments . . . . .	723,000    1,413,000

	ESTIMATES.	
	1839.	1859.
Law and Justice . . . . .	666,000	2,544,000
Education, Science, and Art . . . . .	175,000	1,328,000
Colonial and Consular . . . . .	339,000	428,000
Superannuation and allowances . . . . .	200,000	242,000
Miscellaneous . . . . .	217,000	985,000

To this extraordinary list we will add a few items to show what nooks and crannies the great stream fills. From the finance accounts of the years 1846 and 1858 we copy the following:—

	SUMS VOTED.	
	1846.	1858.
Home Department . . . . .	£16,600	£24,799
Foreign . . . . .	63,000	76,900
Colonial . . . . .	19,000	29,134
Board of Trade . . . . .	37,255	67,847
Poor Law Board . . . . .	120,700	216,060
Factory Inspectors . . . . .	15,324	22,010

We admit that more work may be done by the officials of the Home-office, the Foreign-office, the Board of Trade, &c., in 1858 than in 1846; but the increased work is supererogatory. What more useful business can the Home or Foreign Departments have to do in 1858 than in 1846? We know that the functions of the Board of Trade have been increased by the control given to it of the mercantile marine, of railways, &c., but its partial control of these great interests tends to divide responsibility and multiply calamities both by rails and ships. A country in which industry is really free would find a BOARD OF TRADE not merely unnecessary but a nuisance. But since the Legislature was compelled, by the growth of public opinion, to set trade partially free, it has been wheedled by the Board into nearly doubling its functions and its expense.

We refer to these items with earnestness, because we take a more serious view of this subject of taxation than most of our contemporaries. We are aware that most of the Governments of Europe have been embarrassed, or even convulsed, by financial difficulties; and what has been ruinous to them, cannot be safety for her Majesty's Government. In fact, amidst numerous demands for the repeal of Custom-house and Excise duties, amidst urgent remonstrances against increasing income and other direct taxes, its position is at present one of great financial difficulty. It is no light matter, that, for the sake of a revenue not equal to half the unnecessary increase in the expense of our civil government since 1839, at the lowest estimate, we shut ourselves out from much trade with the South of Europe. Regulations abroad only would not be sufficient to this end; it is effectually accomplished by our own fiscal regulations. They nourish the enmities which exist between foreigners and us. For the sake of a revenue not equal to one-fourth of this unnecessarily increased expenditure, it never can be worth while to impede the manufacture of paper and the use of books and journals. The sum voted for education, which goes chiefly to increase the power and patronage of the ministers of the Church, is more than the paper duties. It cannot now be denied that industry sustains life; and if it be a gross crime to take life, it must be a crime almost as gross to impede industry. It lessens or maims life. For the sake of a revenue to spend on objects of more than doubtful utility, no enlightened Government, and no reasonable man can justify even the smallest restriction on honest industry. No grimaces at parsimony, no ridicule about cheese-parings, no club gossip, no coterie wit, however sparkling, can now inspire our suffering Chancellor of the Exchequer with confidence that he is doing his duty, as a man and a patriot, by maintaining taxes for the extraordinary increase in expenditure for civil services, which Mr. WISE has exposed, and which the House of Commons has, we hope, resolved to stop.

#### PORTUGAL.

WE are probably reminding nine out of every ten readers of an event they have quite forgotten, if, indeed, they ever noticed it, when we mention that the session of the Portuguese Legislature was opened the other day by a "gracious" speech from the young King. Who, now, but a holder of Portuguese stock, yet chafing at the injustice to which he has been compelled to submit—a speculative contractor, anxious for a railway concession—or, perhaps, a port-wine votary, whose curiosity, however, does not go beyond the quality of the year's vintage—cares about the good or ill fortune, the home or foreign policy of a nation which once, if it did not exactly give laws to the world, claimed and, to some extent, enforced dominion over the greater part of it? The old power is gone, and the old pride with it; the glory of discovery, and the assumption of exclusive rights based upon it, have vanished. The destinies of Europe are settled without the participation of Portugal, although respect for old precedents

still leads to the complimentary request for her assent to the arrangements already determined upon. Spain, long as lifeless, has never passed from the European gaze. The world, which cared little about its policy, has been interested in the conduct of its rulers, and has been alternately amused and indignant at, but always greedy to hear about, the scandalous vagaries of the faithful CHRISTINA and the pious ISABELLA. The sovereigns of Portugal have led a duller and more decorous life; the "interesting events" by which DONNA MARIA kept on diminishing the prospects of DON MIGUEL being almost the only news we heard for many years of the Court of Lisbon.

Portugal is the precocious child of the modern family of nations. Whilst races older and stronger were still in their infancy, Portugal had developed a vigour and a daring which were rewarded by noble prizes. What were France and England, the now leading powers of Europe—so far, at least, as their marine and commerce—when Portuguese navigators discovered and took possession of Madeira and the Azores, and added "Lord of Guinea" to the titles of their sovereign? What were they at that later period, when VASCO DE GAMA found the way to India, and claimed for his king not only the whole east of Africa, but the sovereignty of all the Indian seas? What were they—great as had been their growth in a short space of time—when, at a still later date, Brazil was added to the Portuguese dominions, and Spain alone rivalled in extent of empire its diminutive neighbour? It was a brief but a glorious period. In a little more than a hundred years the sun of Portugal rose and set. With SEBASTIAN'S wild crusade, the glory of Portugal departed. Little real profit as Spain gained by the annexation, she had at least the satisfaction of completely maiming her prey before she gave it up. The subjection of the Portuguese colonies to the Spanish crown was a godsend to the Dutch. What Portugal, defending her own, might have retained, Spain, already embarrassed with an empire so much more wealthy, could not protect. When, therefore, Portugal resumed her national life, after her sixty years' bondage, she found all her pretensions to exclusive domination in India practically put an end to, and eager enterprising commercial rivals almost every where. The semblance of the power remained long after. She still retained vast tracts of the earth, which, if they yielded nothing else, gave what was then deemed the most valuable of all productions—gold, and to get that other nations were willing to court her favour. But the beginning of the century shook the last flowers off her old wealth, and the House of BRAGANZA now ranks amongst the secondary reigning families of Europe. It succeeded to a decaying heritage, and was unable to restore it. The power and life of Portugal were exhausted in a too early development, and the nations which in their then poverty and backwardness envied her wealth and glory, and upon which she scornfully looked down, now treat her with contemptuous courtesy.

Fallen and enfeebled as she is, Portugal yet, however, retains a large portion, in mere extent, of her old possessions. Her wealthier colonies have thrown off her yoke, and, thanks to the severance of a connection which repressed their growth, are flourishing; but she still holds nearly all she ever held in Africa, and still pursues there that narrow, monopolising policy which has been one great cause of her decay. Although her sovereignty both on the East and West coast is rather nominal than real, it is quite sufficient to prevent the development of the commerce, and thus to stay the civilization, of Africa. The other Powers of Europe have recognised the sovereignty of Portugal over these territories, in which it really has but a few small posts, and cannot, therefore, well interfere with the jealous policy by which a nation with little or no commerce of its own hinders other countries from turning to account the resources of a continent rich in commodities of the greatest importance to the industry of Europe. The value of these possessions to Portugal herself can be but small. Their great use is to give the members of certain influential families the means of accumulating fortunes by breaking the laws the observance of which they are nominally sent out to secure. Portugal has professedly suppressed the slave-trade in its colonies, whilst preserving slavery itself for a limited period; but it is notorious that the Portuguese officials on both coasts of Africa engage in the slave-trade themselves, and, especially with a view to the maintenance of facilities for carrying it on, throw every obstacle in the way of legitimate trade. The Government at home knows well that this is the case, and is, therefore, responsible for their misdeeds. This is not a matter of small importance. Put aside for a moment any indignation at the manner in which all the efforts of this nation for the suppression of the slave-trade are thus thwarted; leave out of consideration the capabilities of these colonies for the production of cotton and other commodities of value to the whole world, the immediate interests of British subjects are seriously injured by this abominable policy of the Portuguese

Government. Our colony of Natal, for instance, could carry on a mutually profitable trade with the whole of Eastern Africa, and enterprising individuals have attempted it, but the Portuguese officials have prevented them, and, dog in the manger-like, will neither carry on legitimate commerce themselves, nor let others do so. A sad contrast to the hundred years of Portuguese discovery, are its four hundred years of possession. First, genius, daring, patience, were employed to find new fields for commerce and new roads to the rich lands of the East. Then every remaining energy was devoted to the jealous attempt to monopolise the advantages of that genius, and render the benefits it had promised to confer upon humanity nugatory. We see the results of this system in the decline of the nation which has pursued it, and in the ruin of possessions which ought to have been flourishing.

Nothing, however, about these colonies of his does the King of Portugal say in his gracious speech, beyond congratulating himself that public tranquillity has not been disturbed. The principal thing he has to tell his trusty Chambers is, that he has appointed two plenipotentiaries for the Congress, which probably will never meet. Add that his Government has made contracts for some railways—a matter important enough, since the great drawback of Portugal is its want of means of communication—and that the Finance Minister will in due time present his budget—and we have the substance of the speech. Our old and faithful ally must bestir itself, if it would enjoy the good opinion of the world and regain any portion of its old power. There is a field large enough for its energy and enterprise. The mother country herself has large resources undeveloped, and the colonies have immense capabilities. If Portugal is not herself equal to the work, assistance would soon be given if a liberal policy were adopted, and the good faith of the nation were sufficiently evidenced. Will the budget of our Finance Minister stir up the sluggish race? Although the advantages given by the METHUEN Treaty have long since been nominally withdrawn, Portugal has really enjoyed many of them up to the present time. The strong dear wine of Oporto could much better pay 6s. per gallon than the light cheap wines of the Hérault. Now, the Lusitanians must fight for our custom without any favour; and as they will find that they cannot well do that with the monopolies they have been cherishing at home, they may possibly learn to give up monopolies altogether, and, relying on their own energies, regain, not the proud pre-eminence of which they once boasted, but the respectable position which their great natural advantages ought to give them.

#### A REPARTITION OF EUROPE.

IN the present perturbed state of continental politics, and in full view of territorial and dynastic changes in several European States, it is interesting to open a page of history perhaps less familiarly known than some others to the general reader, and find a confirmation of the fact that the events of to-day are but the offspring of those of yesterday—the progenitors of those of to-morrow. Two centuries and a half ago the powerful French monarch Henry IV. conceived, and in conjunction with our English sovereign, Queen Elizabeth, sought to carry out, a vast and important project for the redivision of the States of Europe. To restrain Austrian tyranny and aggression, and curtail the extent of the Austrian dominions, to liberate the Italian Peninsula from the yoke of the foreigner, reduce the number of Italian States, and unite them in a confederation under the presidency of the Pope, were among the designs nourished by Henry, and which formed part of the plan in question.

The first eleven years of Henry's reign were passed in continual warfare, either civil or foreign. But the great king's genius overcame every obstacle, and at the opening of the seventeenth century he found himself seated upon his throne in tranquillity and security. Then it was that he began to think seriously of carrying out the grand and magnificent project upon which his mind had dwelt for ten years past. Having reduced it to a regular plan, and calculated all its elements of success, he communicated it to his faithful minister, Maximilian de Rosny, afterwards Duc de Sully. "I remember," says he in his *Memoires* (livre xxx.), "that when for the first time I heard the king speak of a political system by means of which Europe was to be redivided and governed like one family, I paid little attention to the prince, imagining that he spoke only in jest, or that he desired to gain credit for appearing to think more deeply and accurately upon politics than men in general. My answer was half in a tone of *badinage*, half complimentary, and Henry proceeded no further on that occasion. He has since frequently confessed that he long concealed from me what was passing in his mind from the reluctance men feel to propound ideas which may appear ridiculous or incapable of realization." But when Henry fully developed his plan the vast mind of Sully instantly penetrated its wisdom, and he gave his unqualified admiration and approbation. The chief ends of the project were professedly to render all christian nations independent, and unite them in a federal society which should render war rare, if not impossible. As a foundation for this state of things Henry considered it necessary first of all to humble the House of Austria, whose powerful preponderance threatened all Europe. Hungary, Bohemia, and a great part of Germany yielded subjection



to the second branch of that house which had, in fact, acquired hereditary possession of the empire. The eldest branch united under its dominions all the Spanish Peninsula, America, the Portuguese Indies, the Two Sicilies, Sardinia, Milan, Franche-Comté, and the Catholic Low Countries. The United Provinces of Holland were exhausted by a war which had lasted since 1568; the Italian States were held down by the preponderance of Spain; France was pressed upon by the Austrian possessions; England was threatened by Spanish intrigues in Ireland and Scotland; the princes of the empire were reduced to vassalage under the House of Austria, and hatred, united with fear, towards Spain was universal.

According to Henry's plan, a league was to be formed of all the natural enemies of the Austrian power. France and England were to be at its head, and gather around them the princes and republics of Italy and Germany, the Dutch provinces, the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and the protestants of the Austrian States of Germany, Hungary, and Bohemia. By this union of forces, the Emperor and Philip the Third were to be attacked, and upon the ruins of their power an equitable order of things was to be established. Among the changes and ameliorations contemplated, the imperial dignity was to be made elective, and though it was to be confined to princes of the empire, according to ancient usage, it was not to be given twice in succession to the same house. Bohemia, with Moravia, Lusatia, and Silesia should be formed into a kingdom, its king to be elected by the allied powers. Hungary, with the archduchy of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and all the conquests which might be made in Transylvania, Bosnia, Sclavonia and Croatia, should also have a king, elected by the same potentates. Poland, which then extended to the Dnieper, enlarged by conquests of territory taken from the unfaithful surrounding her dominions, should have the same government. The Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Franche-Comté, Alsatia, with the Swiss Cantons, should constitute a Helvetic republic, to be governed by a senate, of which the Emperor and princes of Germany, and the Signiory of Venice, would be the supreme arbitrators. The other possessions of the second branch of the House of Austria were to be divided, according to the views of the great powers, among the minor states of Germany and the Venetian Republic, which would acquire Austrian Friuli and the interior of Istria. In Italy, the Duke of Savoy was to cede his ultra-Alpine possessions to France, but to assume the title of King of Lombardy. Sicily was to be given to Venice, who was to do homage for it to the Pope. If the Pontiff refused to join the league, that kingdom was to be divided, and apportioned according to the wishes of the *king electors*. The Italian Republic was to be composed of the free cities Ferrara and Bologna, the States of Genoa, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Massa, and Tuscany. To the Pope was to appertain the title of immediate head of the Italian Republic, without any other acknowledgment of his supremacy than a crucifix—value ten million scudi—every twenty years. The eldest branch of the House of Austria would retain Iberia, with the Balearic Isles, Sardinia, and the colonies in both the Indies, besides supremacy over the countries which might be conquered or discovered in other parts of the world; these not however to be united as colonies to the monarchy, but to be formed into separate kingdoms for the various princes of the House.

Such was the proposed territorial repartition of Henry IV. Though not adapted to our times, it offered great advantages in the early part of the seventeenth century. To Italy it promised independence, and the reduction of its numerous petty states to four. The Pontiff, by the acquisition of the kingdom of Naples, would have become the enemy of Spain, and consequently the adversary of the Jesuits, the satellites of that power. But perhaps the greatest gain would have accrued to the dynasty of Savoy, which, extending without interruption to the Adda, and assuming the kingly title with the iron crown, would have been in a position to profit by any discontent which might arise in the Venetian provinces, or by the disunion of the small states forming the Italian Republic. Probably before the lapse of a century the kingdom of Lombardy would have touched the Adige and the Mediterranean.

His plan being thus sketched out, after having consecrated the principle of religious liberty by the Edict of Nantes, Henry became desirous of conferring with Elizabeth, Queen of England. With this object, in the summer of 1601, he repaired to Calais, ostensibly that he might, with greater facility, watch the progress of the war in Flanders, which was then proceeding on the very borders of France. He wrote to the English sovereign, who replied, lamenting that etiquette and propriety forbade her from joining him. She begged her *dearest and best beloved brother* to believe that she the more regretted it, because she would have liked to communicate to him something which she neither dared confide to any one, nor commit to paper. Henry speedily made arrangements for conferring with her, and being unable to go in person, despatched M. de Rosny to Elizabeth. The minister crossed the straits, professing to remain incognito, in order that he might visit London without restraint or formality. Upon arriving at Dover, where the queen was, he was courteously arrested in her name by a captain of her guards. The incident neither surprised nor displeased De Rosny, and he suffered himself to be conducted to Her Majesty's presence.

In the interview which followed, he was struck with admiration at the genius of Elizabeth. With brevity and clearness he described to her the state of Europe after the Peace of Vervins, and showed that the union of France and England was necessary to humble the power of the House of Austria, and deprive it of a large portion of its dominions. But, he added, it was important the two great allied powers should limit their desires, and not aspire to making acquisitions which might prove mutually displeasing; for example,

England would not like that the Low Countries should become French provinces, nor would France suffer that England should possess them. He told her that he had already persuaded Henry of this as indispensable to gaining the confidence of the minor allies, and now demonstrated to her, as he had done to him, that France and England would gain sufficiently by acquiring preponderance in Europe. "It was," he says, "matter of surprise to me, to see how Elizabeth and Henry, who had never conferred together upon their political projects, precisely agreed in all their ideas, even to the minutest particulars." "For the rest," he writes elsewhere, "I found her greatly concerned about the means of carrying out this grand project successfully; notwithstanding the difficulties which she foresaw would arise on the two capital points, the reconciliation of religious differences, and the equalization of power, there seems to me no reason to doubt of success." The conditions, and various arrangements due to the Queen of England, showed that in penetration, wisdom, and mental qualities in general, she was not inferior to any of the kings most worthy of the name.

When the bases of the league were laid it was not difficult to extend it. The minor princes were urged by their passions and interests to join it. By entering it they might safely hope to gratify their feelings of hatred and revenge towards Austria, indemnify themselves for the long-continued terror she had caused them by aggrandizing themselves at her expense, and enjoy a long and secure season of peace, which would enable them to disarm and develop their resources of commerce and industry. Finally, they thus saw France deprived in future of the means of undue extension, and considered it as the establishment of an order of things which, from its equity, bore the appearance of stability.

Unfortunately, the death of Elizabeth occurred in 1603 to disturb the happy combination. "I have lost," writes De Rosny upon this occasion, "the irreconcilable enemy of my enemies, and my second self." Despatched without delay to the Queen's successor, James I., he found the Court of England divided into several different factions. It was only at the fourth audience that he could obtain a private interview with the king. When, after much precaution, he explained as much of the project as he thought necessary, James listened to him attentively, agreed with all the ideas submitted to him, and signed a treaty for the defence of the United Provinces. This the Marquis carried back to France, and, having obtained its ratification by Henry, returned to James for his signature. But the weak and vacillating English monarch had no sooner put his hand to it than he violated it, and, at the instigation of the Spanish party, stipulated for a treaty of neutrality relative to the War of Flanders. Shortly after, he wished to renew the treaty as at first drawn up, and after some months and even years of hesitation, determinations and counter determinations on his part, Henry and De Rosny found that no dependence could be placed upon him. In spite, however, of all difficulties they persevered, and all seemed prepared for the realization of the grand plan, when the secret transpired, owing to the imprudence of Henry himself. It seems to have been due to that circumstance that his life was cut short by the dagger of Ravallac, May 14th, 1610.

The news of Henry's death caused the most contradictory manifestations of feeling. The regret of his own subjects was indescribable, the rejoicing of Spain and those connected with that country intense. He was wept as a father by the inhabitants of the Low Countries. The people of Venice exclaimed with tears in their eyes, *Our king is dead*. Holland saw itself abandoned to its own exhausted resources. The princes of Germany were condemned to continual suffering under the House of Austria. Venice was obliged to give up the coveted possession of Sicily; the Pope to abandon all hope of the kingdom he had been on the point of possessing, and the House of Savoy lost its hold of the royal crown of Lombardy, which it had all but secured, and for which it was obliged to wait and labour for many long years.

#### PROGRESS OF SCIENCE.

THE appearance of Mr. TIMBS's "Year-Book of Facts" \* both suggests and facilitates a review of the gains of civilization during the last year, through the progress of science and the employment of additional aids to human work. It is now generally admitted by great thinkers that there is a definite relation between speculative opinions and social arrangements; so that forms of government, the nature and direction of the action of the State, and the character of domestic and individual life, are all affected by the changes which take place in the current philosophy of the age. A science full of violent convulsions, intermittent energies, and marvellous interruptions of established order, could not fail to manifest affinities with rude despotic arrangements and the constant employment of brute force; while, on the other hand, the recognition of an unchangeable, orderly, and on the whole equable evolution of natural events, plainly tends towards the introduction of milder and more beneficent conditions of society. Rude and imperfect science is prodigal of violence and penurious of time: it cannot wait for the accumulated action of prolonged but quiet forces; and instead of patiently watching the operations of nature, imagines the occasional appearance of epochs of abnormal strength or violence, through whose sudden operation it conceives all great changes to be produced. Rude and imperfect governments are precisely analogous in their operation, and manifest the same love for violence and the same distrust of milder means.

It is from such considerations that we feel most strongly the connexion between philosophy and morals, and recognise the political

\* The Year-Book of Facts. By J. F. TIMBS. London: W. Kent and Co.

and social importance of the diffusion of enlightened scientific views. Among living philosophers, no one has done more towards elucidating and popularising the uniform and continuous method of natural operation than Sir CHARLES LYELL, who rescued one of the most comprehensive sciences—geology—from the convulsory theories of less gifted men. The past year has added to the proofs of the soundness of his views. The discussion concerning the flint implements found in France, at Abbeville and Amiens, in association with fossils far older than chronology usually fixes the date of man's appearance upon the earth, has confirmed the belief in the antiquity of the human race, while investigations in American coal-fields have demonstrated the existence of abundance of air-breathing reptiles during the carboniferous period, and other discoveries have added to the conviction that the changes in the organic life of our globe have been brought about in a very gradual and orderly manner, by the operations of continuous causes through prodigious periods of time, and without any breaks or interruptions in the enormous and far-reaching plan. Tending towards precisely the same philosophy are the opinions of FARADAY on the "Conservation of Force." By force, FARADAY means "the cause of a physical action;" and he maintains that whether the causes of electrical, chemical, and other actions be distinct and separate, or only modified manifestations of one and the same power, the total amount of force "existing in an individual atom or in the universe is unchangeable and indestructible. The practical difficulty consists in our imperfect means of tracing the action of forces under all circumstances; thus, if one body is removed from another, so that the attraction of gravitation is lessened inversely as the square of the distance, what becomes of the "force" thus ceasing to produce a gravitating effect? That it produces some effect cannot be doubted by any one who admits the principle of the "Conservation of Force;" but it remains for future discovery to unfold the precise nature and consequence of its operation.

Bearing very much on this question of continuous as contrasted with spasmodic action, are the theories propounded by Mr. DARWIN to account for the appearance of different species of creatures. Mr. DARWIN's scheme, which is, as yet, a long way from completeness or proof, appears to have for its object to show that the immense variety of organic forms exhibited during geological eras, or now extant upon earth, are the result of natural forces acting upon a few typical forms which they have gradually changed and modified, so as to produce what naturalists have taken for individual and persistent species. We shall probably be able shortly to return to this subject, but now mention it as exhibiting one of the many tendencies to recognise the continuous operation of uniform causes, and the powerful effects produced by a constant succession of comparatively small impulses. The growth of this idea is the culminating point of modern philosophy, and none was ever calculated to be more fertile in important practical results.

In science, notwithstanding the constant addition of fresh materials, we are manifestly tending towards simplicity. Thus, FARADAY following BECQUEREL shows fluorescence and phosphorescence to be similar luminous conditions, differing only in "the time during which the slate, excited by exposure to light, continues." SCHÖNBEIN recognises oxygen in three conditions: ozone, antozone, and its ordinary state; and under each condition he supposes oxygen to be able to combine, producing different chemical results. Following the same line, M. CAHOUS, in recent researches into the nature of "organo-metallic radicals," has added to the evidence in favour of considering the metals as compound bodies, perhaps all of them modifications or different states of one and the same substance; and M. PELIGOT, by detecting cellulose, the basis of vegetable tissues, as a component of chitine, or the substance which gives firmness to the shells of lobsters and other crustaceans, and to the skins of insects, has rendered apparent additional points of connexion between the two great divisions of the organic world. According to this philosopher, "the external envelope, more or less resisting, of animals or plants is composed of only two substances, cellulose and protein—cellulose, which exists in plants and inferior animals; cellulose and protein, which are united in animals higher in the scale; and protein alone, which forms the tissues of the vertebrata." (*Annales de Chimie*.) Thus, gradually, does the great doctrine of unity of design in Nature unfold itself to our view; and we look forward with confidence to the future discovery of a few simple and comprehensive laws, competent to the production of the most diversified effects.

In electrical science, an important step towards unity and simplicity has been made by some recent discoveries of Mr. GASSIOT, to which we shall take an early opportunity of returning, merely alluding now, to one which attracted great attention in a recent lecture of Professor TYNDALL, at the Royal Institution, who illustrated it by exhibiting the stratified discharge *in vacuo* by means of a powerful GROVE's battery, precisely the same as that which has hitherto been obtained only by means of RUHMKORFF's coil.

In light we seem on the verge of important discoveries, as M. NIEPCE has succeeded, so to speak, in bottling up its actinic power; and Mr. SMITH exhibited to the British Association an apparatus for producing colours by means of alternate impressions of light and darkness, obtained by whirling a white card over a black ground—an experiment which appears in harmony with GOETHE's views.

If we turn from the philosophy of science to its practical achievements and applications, the prospect is satisfactory and encouraging. In works of construction we can point to the Great Eastern; and to the Victoria Bridge, spanning the river St. Lawrence, and overcoming the engineering difficulties occasioned by the power of the winter

ice. Some progress has been made in steam ploughing, which together with other scientific means of carrying on agriculture, promises to elevate the condition of the agricultural labourer, as the discovery has happily been made that an ignorant, badly housed, ill-treated peasantry, are no longer likely to be profitable to their employers, or the owners of the soil. Machinery is also making its way into the baking trade, and will no doubt solve the question of what is to be done with the thousands of miserable beings who now toil for unheard-of hours, in the noisome cellars in which the bread of great towns is usually made. In military and naval art the past year will be famous, if not for fresh discovery, for the success in constructing Armstrong guns, which will give the range and precision of the rifle to the largest ordnance, and for the progress made in building steam rams and impenetrable iron-cased ships. There can be no doubt that our chances of peace have been immensely increased by the practical proof that we could beat all the world combined in the rapid production of costly and efficient implements of war.

In the matter of lighting streets and houses great energy has been displayed by competitors with the Gas Companies, who seem foolishly dead to the necessity for improvement. We have a new effort to utilize the lime light. Major FITZMAURICE in England and M. ISOARD in France have new plans for making a cheap and highly illuminating gas, and the South Foreland Light-house has been illuminated by an electric light; speaking of which brings to mind another curious application of electric force—the Electric Loom of Chevalier BONELLI, which was originally exhibited in Paris in 1855, and is now working successfully under M. FREMENT. Its principle is the substitution of thin sheets of tin partly covered with varnish, which interrupts the electrical contact, for the Jacquard cards.

In France, several new machines for making artificial ice by the evaporation of ether have been introduced, and are well spoken of. They resemble one which was exhibited in London a few years ago, and is now said to be at work in Australia. Efforts continue to be made to substitute machinery for manual labour in type-composing, and an invention of Mr. HATTERSLEY has received considerable praise; and machinery seems destined to supersede the stitching of the tailor and the drudgery of the needle in family life. Mr. TIMES tells us Mr. PETER TAIT, of Limerick, informed the Army Contracts Commission that the whole of his clothing is cut and sewn by machinery driven by steam, and capable of making four thousand suits a week. It is pleasant to read of these triumphs of inventive skill; but our social system is sadly defective in equalising their benefits, which too often go chiefly to the capitalist, and leave the workman scarcely better off than he was before—even after he has recovered the immediate injury which the change has produced.

Of new fabrics the most remarkable seems to be the "vegetable leather" of Messrs. SPILL and Co., of Stepney, which can be made of any size and thickness, and is applicable to bookbinding, upholstery, saddlery, and other purposes for which the ordinary leather is used, while it is only one-third its price. India-rubber enters into its manufacture.

The constant occurrence of fatal accidents by the ignition of ladies' dresses has given rise to elaborate experiments to render fabrics fireproof, and a considerable success has been achieved by Messrs. VERSMANN and OFFENHEIM, who employ sulphate of ammonia to dress the article in the process of manufacture, and tungstate of soda to renew its non-inflammability each time it is washed.

#### BRITANNIA'S SHAME.\*

WE hear so often and so much of Britannia's glory and her greatness, that we might suppose ourselves, in our corporate capacity, immaculate and immortal, did we never hear of her littleness and her shame. It is needful sometimes to be told of her misdeeds. In Mr. BURKE's time the rotten boroughs were the "shameful parts of the constitution." We have got rid of the worst of them, but they have bequeathed to us a scandal far greater than themselves. Under their influence the corrupt government of the navy was begun, continued, and established; and when they were destroyed no hand purified it. Dover and its like still maintain in authority the old scourge of the seamen, and the dishonour of the nation.

In 1858, the number of persons embarked in the Royal Navy subject still to the degrading system of corporeal punishment, instituted by the boroughmongers, was 47,646. The warrant and commissioned officers are not liable to this punishment. Till a comparatively recent period young gentlemen were; but it was considered so degrading, that by a special order they were to be exempt from it. The aristocratic chiefs relieved their youthful and genteel connections from the barbarous infliction, but they pertinaciously continued it for the actual working and vulgar sailors. Thus, of the total number of persons serving Her Majesty afloat—about 52,000—only 47,646 are liable to be flogged. Of these, nine hundred and ninety-seven, or one in forty-seven nearly, were flogged in 1858. Flogging is, indeed, only one of the tortures by which naval discipline, as that brutal system is called, is preserved, and besides all the grog-stopping, shot-carrying, extra work, confinement, &c., &c., inflicted on these 47,646 gallant defenders of the country.

\* FLOGGING IN THE NAVY.—Return to an Order of the Honourable House of Commons, dated 14th July, 1859, for—A return of the number of persons flogged in the British Navy in the year 1853, specifying the name of the ship, the officer, the sentence, and the number of lashes inflicted on each person, and whether by a court-martial or not. Dated Admiralty, January 31st, 1860.



nine hundred and ninety-seven of them were flogged in the year 1858.

Let us, if we can, figure to ourselves what this flogging of nine hundred and ninety-seven human beings actually means. A man, guarded by soldiers and ship's corporals, is taken out of irons, or out of confinement, and conducted to the place of punishment. There his feet are tied apart to a grating placed on the deck, and his hands are tied apart to another grating, reared upright from one deck to another, and he stands as if nailed to a cross, his back a fair mark for the scarifier, and his face to the hard grating. He is stripped naked to the waist; his hair is carefully fastened round his head, that his back may have no protection. All the officers and men of the ship are summoned to be present. He is surrounded by soldiers and others, and cannot possibly wrest himself loose, even to throw himself overboard. Perfectly resistless and helpless, he stands tied fast, while the captain solemnly reads the article of war against which he is said to have offended, and gives the order to the boatswain, or his mates, to flog him. The instrument used is a formidable cat of nine knotted tails, each of which is as thick as a tobacco pipe stem, fastened to a stout, strong handle. It is wielded by a stalwart man—his jacket off, his arms bare—and compelled by a threat of similar punishment to hit as hard as he can. Lash after lash falls on the naked back, and the man groans and writhes with agony, or stoically grinds his teeth, and bears unwinningly what he can by no means escape from. His back, first marked with whitish stripes, soon becomes red, inflamed, swollen, and black; the blood begins to drop, to trickle, and to run, till it flows from the bruised body into the trousers; lash follows lash—boatswain's-mate follows boatswain's-mate—till the ordained torture has been suffered to the last blow. The head begins, perhaps, to droop; the sufferer grows faint; water is handed to him, to enable him to undergo the whole torture; the doctor feels his pulse, declares that he will not yet faint or die, and the last of the ordained lashes is as mercilessly given as the first. Solemnly, as an act, so-called, of justice, as if in mockery of the sacred word, is all this cruelty perpetrated. The sun may scorch under the tropics—the snow and ice may lie on the decks, as in our own climate in winter—the bloody work is done all the same; slowly, and with horrid ceremonials, such as accompany all barbarian sacrifices! On the last year but one of the national existence, this brutal, bloody work, of which we have endeavoured to give our readers an idea, was done on the backs of nine hundred and ninety-seven of our fellow-creatures engaged in the noble service of the national defence. Almost one thousand, as many persons as giving the hand to each other might reach in a line from Charing Cross to Temple Bar, were tortured in this horrid barbarian fashion on board the ships of the Empress of the sea, who boasts that she is for ever engaged in missionary works of humanity and christian love.

The nine hundred and ninety-seven bruised and bloody backs had inflicted on them 32,420 lashes; and if we suppose that only six of the tails struck each time, they felt the anguish of 194,520 stripes. On every back, on the average, thirty-two lashes and something more were struck by the heavy-handed boatswain's mate and his nine-tailed cat. Some peculiarities in the return reveal to us that this solemn system of justice is about the least uniform and most capricious of all systems of punishment. On some backs fifty lashes fell, on others only three; but the general average may be stated at three dozen lashes, which the captains and commanders of Britannia's ships inflicted on each person flogged. The captain of the "Actæon" gave one hundred and forty-four lashes to three men; the captain of the "Antelope" ninety-six lashes to two men; the captain of the "Conflict" the same; so that they were in the habit of inflicting four dozen lashes on the naked backs of the men under their orders. The captains of the *Iris* and the *Coquet* inflicted on the average thirty-nine lashes on the backs of their men, and the captain of the *Ariel* keeps the golden mean of thirty-six. The captain of the *Cæsar* inflicted one hundred and thirty-eight lashes on seven men, which is less than twenty each man. The captain of the *Brune* gave only eighteen lashes to only one man; the captain of the *Fisgard*, lying we think at Deptford, and under our eye, inflicted only twelve lashes on each of the persons he flogged. The offences in all the ships are much the same. Drunkenness, insubordination, theft; and the great difference of punishment between one dozen and four dozen lashes for the same offences proves completely that the severity of the punishment depends more on the temper of each individual, captain or punisher, than on the gravity of the offence punished.

The same important truth, convincing us that the scandalous system is maintained not from any necessity for punishment in the flogged and tortured man, but from the cruel dispositions of the floggers, glares on us from the number of persons flogged in the different ships. Of the persons liable to punishment on board the "Excellent," to quote one or two examples, only one in three hundred and fifteen men was flogged—average twenty lashes; in the "Cæsar," one in one hundred and eleven—average twenty lashes; in the "Euryalus," one in ninety-eight—average twenty-eight lashes; in the "Lyra," however, one in five of those liable were flogged; in the "Weser," one in six; and in the "Opossum," one in seven; and in these ships the number of lashes inflicted respectively at each flogging was thirty-four, thirty-seven, and thirty-nine. As the rule, and we can quote but these few examples, numerous floggings, and severe floggings, are found on board the same ships. In some ships about forty out of two hundred and sixteen, having on board nearly 5,500 persons liable to be flogged, or one-ninth of the whole, no men were flogged. Now, as the crews of all the ships are much alike, as they are frequently mingled and

interchanged, it becomes perfectly clear that the different degrees of brutality noticed are due to the idiosyncrasies of different captains, not to the virtues and vices of the seamen. It is possible—even though we shrink with horror from the thought—that the intemperance of individual captains may influence the number and severity of the floggings.

As the rule, too, it appears that the greater proportionate number of men tortured, and tortured in the severest manner, occurs on board the smaller ships. Britannia's big ships, commanded by her veterans—her men of experience—who know something more than the striplings placed by aristocratic connections and Admiralty corruption in command—are far less dishonoured by brutal floggings than the little vessels. Hot, hasty, and ignorant, the young midshipman, hardened by the cruel sights he is forced to witness and bear a part in, as he steps into command becomes a martinet, and has no notion of using any other means than the bloody cat he is intrusted with to preserve the obedience of his crew. It must be a horrible reflection for the aristocratic mothers of England, that the gentle boys who go from their arms or the care of kind preceptors to be Britannia's sea captains, are compelled to attend such cruel scenes, and are thus corrupted and hardened in the very beginning of life, to delight afterwards, perhaps, in cruelty originally abhorrent to their natures. Thus, however, by continually hardening youngsters, instruments are created for perpetuating the barbarous system from generation to generation, and amongst the youth whom it corrupts and debases we find, judging from the return, the worst examples of its abominations.

It is not our fault—it is the fault of the besotted Admiralty that we are obliged to recur again and again to these brutalities. Annually is evidence laid before the Board of its extreme folly. Monthly, weekly, almost daily, does it hear of a difficulty in getting seamen, of numerous desertions, of the character of seamen being degraded; but obstinately does it shut its eyes and its ears to the consequences of its own acts, and continue the capricious, partial, barbarous, and disgusting old system, which it dignifies with the name of discipline. The Board compels the press repeatedly and continually to notice the consequences of its utter want of common observation, common humanity, and common sense. Only by so doing can there be any hope of driving this stolid body to alter the system. As now reflected, however, in the conduct of American skippers and mates, who use in hot anger handspikes and marlin-spikes to men who can get out of the way of their blows, where the Admiralty slowly and solemnly uses the cat on the helpless tied-up victim who cannot budge, Britannia's naval discipline is becoming much too atrocious to be borne. Justice, humanity, patriotism, the national safety, all protest loudly against it; and the whole world will despise Englishmen if they do not inform the Board of Admiralty, corrupt in its origin and continuance, that Britannia must no longer by it be so scandalously dishonoured.

#### AN INNER VIEW OF AMERICAN AFFAIRS.\*

EVERY country is unique. Only in a very modified measure does the understanding of one's own land help to the comprehension of another. The reading of the impressions left by their sojourns in England, even by such competent men as Max Schlesinger and Kohl, leaves upon our minds a strong sense of the incompetency of the most intelligent and liberal foreigners fully to understand England and our institutions. No Frenchman understands us. Montalembert, perhaps, has made the nearest approach to a clear view; and yet his whole conclusions are affected by a narrow *parliamentary* way of looking at us, and a still narrower, "Upper Ten Thousand" restraint of vision. And even the paradox is sound, that the more similar two states are, the greater is the difficulty for a member of either temporarily to denationalize himself, and to look at the other with the eyes of its own citizen. The cosmopolitanism bred by modern facility of mutual intercourse and the expansion of reciprocal trade in things and thoughts, does a great deal to rub off the accidents of nationality, but does nearly as much to indurate the essentials. The most cosmopolitan of Scotchmen, most cosmopolitan of all people, has a firm national basis behind; in which he fixes his anchor all the firmer, that he rides on the wide waves of the world with a very long cable.

If this view be accepted as truthful, we have paved the way for the acknowledgment that the reading of a good many recent books, by English travellers and residents in the United States, Dr. Mackay and Mr. Grattan among them, while largely informing us of the American habits and institutions, has also left an impression of incompleteness. We have left the perusal, grateful for new stores of facts about America, but wishful for a better master-key with which to unlock the meanings of the facts. The former of these writers was a tourist, saw only the outsides of things, and in their holiday habiliments. The diplomatic office of the latter prevented his forgetting that he was an Englishman. He was necessarily, and prominently, in antagonism with the States on many public questions. At the best, lacking sympathy and appreciation, a type of the average travelling Englishman, and so genteel as to be shocked by much around him in New England that was worthy but roughly set,—he was made all the more unfitted for his work by the special conditions of his place.

In a very small and remarkably modest and unpretending brochure which has recently met our eyes, we have found a great deal about

\* *Theodore Parker's Experience as a Minister; with some account of his early Life, and Education for the Ministry.* London: John Chapman. 1859.

America that we could not find in the English books, and a great deal that explains and turns to account what we did find in them. We allude to a pamphlet by Theodore Parker, republished by Mr. Chapman from the American edition. That distinguished thinker and writer had ministered for fourteen years to a congregation in Boston. Hard work shattered his health. He sought repose, abstinence from all clerical work having been imposed upon him. From Santa Cruz, "amid the gorgeous vegetation of the tropics," under "their fiery skies, so brilliant all day, and star-lit with such exceeding beauty all the night," he wrote to his New England congregation a letter, detailing his "experience as minister, with some account of his early life, and education for the ministry." This letter, printed in America, and republished here, is before us. Much of its contents are personal: that part we put aside. The great bulk of the matter is theological, and it is not within our present province to expatiate upon our disagreement with his religious views, or an examination of the steps which led him to them. But Mr. Parker, truly apprehending the meaning of his office, has taken a large part in the great work in the cause of humanity, progress, and political honesty, in which New England is foremost, the heaven of the States. And he has much to say to his readers on the history of the public policy of his country, on the anti-slavery fight, on the various movements against drunkenness, and, to speak generally, the moral, social, and political wrongs of the Transatlantic Republic. A citation of some of his statements and sentiments may help to a clearer view of inner American affairs, and may give some collateral guidance for the solution of our own difficult problems—the same on both sides the ocean.

Mr. Parker can tell the truth. We believe that he does tell the truth. Leaving aside the testimony yielded by his previous life and works, of his honesty and faithfulness, internal evidence from this pamphlet itself furnishes these two conclusions. He has fought his way from one creed to another. Independently of our own estimate of the intrinsic value of either, charity must allow that he, having built up his own faith in one department of opinion, at great social sacrifice, is likely to be equally uncompromising and honest in the formation of his views on other subjects. Again; he speaks very plainly to his New England flock. He rebukes their own sins. He is more copious, more severe on Boston sins than on Southern sins. He recurs oftener to the drunkenness, prostitution, and dollar-worship of the Northern cities than to the slavery and concubinage of the Southern Slave States. And when he assails slavery, it is not so much the "institution," as the apathetic indifference to, or the open support of it by the North that he reprobates. Speaking plainly and severely, therefore, to his own followers, the probability is that he is honest. For he is obviously no cynic by nature, but rather likely to err on the suave side.

When Mr. Parker entered on his public duties, Mr. Garrison, in the Anti-Slavery cause, "was beginning his noble work, but in a style so humble that after much search the police of Boston discovered there was nothing dangerous in it, for 'his only visible auxiliary in it was a negro boy.'" Dr. Channing, "after long preaching the dignity of man as an abstraction, and piety as a purely inward life, with rare and winsome eloquence, and ever-progressive humanity, began to apply his sublime doctrines to actual life in the individual, the state, and the church." Horace Mann was beginning his movement for the improvement of public education. "Pierpont, single-handed, was fighting a grand and twofold battle,—against drunkenness in the street, and for righteousness in the pulpit,—against fearful ecclesiastical odds, maintaining a minister's right and duty to oppose actual wickedness, however popular and destructive." And Emerson had begun to hold up before men's eyes eternal and immutable morality.

Incorporated and hoary wrong was up in arms. Society commenced to deal after its wont with the prophets of truth. "Dr. Channing could not draw a long breath in Boston." Orthodox ministers and schoolmasters united in attacking Horace Mann's scheme. Anti-slavery men were cut in the streets. Garrison was mobbed by men in handsome coats, and found refuge in a gaol. A committee of anti-slavery ladies was hooted and driven into the streets. Mr. Parker "counts it a piece of good fortune, that he was a young man when these things were taking place, when great questions were discussed, and the public had not yet taken sides." He came to Europe, and learned much that he afterwards made good use of. "It is only," he says, "in the low parts of London, Paris, and Naples, that an American learns what the ancients meant by the 'People,' the 'Populace,' and sees what barbarism may exist in the midst of wealth, culture, refinement, and manly virtue. There I could learn what warning and what guidance the Old World had to offer to the New." It is somewhat startling to us, and very instructive, to find an American eye, from its focus, taking in Naples and London together, and finding any one point of resemblance.

Mr. Parker enumerates and estimates the four great social forces for good or evil in the States. The organized trading power "controls all things, amenable only to the all-mighty dollar." The organized political power "makes the statutes, but is commonly controlled by the trading power, and has all of its faults often intensified; yet it seems amenable to the instincts of the people, who, on great occasions, sometimes interfere and change the traders' rule." The organized ecclesiastical power "is more able than either of the others; and though often despised, in a few years can control them both. In this generation no American politician can affront it." The organized literary power, "the endowed colleges, the periodical press, with its triple multitude of journals,—commercial, political, theological,—and sectarian tracts, has no original ideas, but diffuses the opinion of the other powers whom it represents, whose will it

serves, and whose kaleidoscope it is." It is some little consolation to us to know, heavily as we feel, fiscally, the burden of an aristocracy of birth, that, in a social aspect, the respect for the peers, although it degenerates into vulgarity, still acts as some counterpoise to the sordidness of "the organized trading power," to which in the States there is no set-off.

The problem put by Mr. Parker—and we need not say it is not solved by him,—is how best to use this fourfold organized power, against drunkenness, prostitution, undue severity of criminal codes, wealth-worship, and social despotism. The "poor Irish" he would educate, and deliver from "their two worst foes, the Popish priest and the American demagogue." Mr. Parker says, "I learned early in life, that the criminal is often the victim of society rather than its foe, and that our penal law belongs to the dark ages of brute force, and aims only to protect society by vengeance on the felon." "There are three great periods in each great movement of mankind,—that of sentiment, ideas, and action." Mr. Parker, when a young man, thought matters were ripe for the last. Mr. Parker, the reformer of mature age, sadly yet sanguinely confesses that he and his fellow-workers must still "seek to arouse the sentiment of justice and mercy, and to diffuse the ideas which belong to the five-fold reformation"—from "poverty, drunkenness, ignorance, prostitution, crime."

We might multiply equally interesting extracts, equally suggestive of application to our own case. The best service we can render our readers is to warmly recommend the pamphlet to their attention, for the reasons we have so fully stated. The following sentences are significant. They increase our sense of the writer's truthfulness; for it costs a scholarly man a great deal to disparage his own class,—one which has as much *esprit de corps*, not to say assumption, as any monopolizing guild.

"In the last forty years, I think no New England college, collective faculty of pupils, has shown sympathy with any of the great forward movements of mankind, which are indicated by some national outbreak, like the French Revolutions of 1830 or 1848. . . . The scholars' culture has palsied their natural instincts of humanity, and gives them instead neither the personal convictions of free moral reflection, nor the traditional commands of Church authority, but only the maxims of vulgar thrift,—'Get the most and give the least; buy cheap and sell dear.' Exceptional men, like Channing, Pierpont, Emerson, Ripley, Mann, Rantoul, Phillips, Sumner, and a few others, only confirm the general rule, that the educated is also a selfish class, morally not in advance of the mass of men."

#### ROGER BACON.\*

IT is pleasant to read a book which has at the same time the freshness of a first edition and the savour of antiquity, and this pleasure is proportionately increased when that which is before us is, not a mere literary fossil, valuable only for its age and the light it throws on a past era of social life, but a part of the bone and sinew of our present knowledge—of our past and our future liberty.

There is certainly no man living now—probably no one ever did live, who has read all the extant works of Roger Bacon. The thing is not possible, for most of them exist only in manuscript, and these scattered about among the libraries of Europe. Only one of his works has, until the present day, found an editor, and that one we have in a curtailed and mutilated form; and yet, with the exception of Francis Bacon alone, England owes more of her present high position in experimental and physical science, and of her liberty of thought itself, to the impulse given to philosophy by the oppressed Franciscan than to any other name in her annals. The earlier Bacon turned men's minds to the truths of "natural knowledge" at a time when they were enslaved by scholastic theology, or sunk in the ignorance of unrefined sensualism. The latter Bacon, at a time when men's hearts were sickened, and their reason stunned by the clangour of theological strife till they were well nigh prepared to doubt the being of all truth, again directed human thought, and, by a new method, fixed it, as it seems, for ever in the direction of those subjects over which it has hitherto made the greatest conquests.

It is difficult for us, who live among associations so widely different, to understand what were the influences that could induce such a man as Roger Bacon to enter into the monastic state; and of all the religious orders that to which he attached himself seems, on retrospect, to have been the least congenial to the great thinker. The key to the mystery, perhaps, is that the Franciscan order had but recently begun its course in England, and that its avowed end was to counteract the sloth and evil habits of the benefited clergy and monks of the old orders. Its work lay especially among the poor and the neglected, and perhaps the philosopher saw, what was most certainly true then as now, that the workman would receive knowledge gladly, or, at the least, be but its passive enemy, while those who were enjoying endowments given for the spread of knowledge would be its bitter persecutors. There exists much evidence tending to prove that the workmen in the towns of mediæval England were really a far better instructed class than most of the clergy of the same period. They who built our cathedrals and our village churches will ever be held in affectionate remembrance. They who disgraced them by crimes, such as even the Reformers in the fierceness of their wrath could hardly exaggerate, had better, for their own sakes, be forgotten.

From a hundred places in Bacon's writings it is evident how

\* Some hitherto inedited Works of Roger Bacon. (Fr. Rogeri Bacon Opera quedam inedita) Vol. 1. I. Opus Tertium. II. Opus Minus. III. Compendium Philosophiæ. Edited by J. S. BREWER, M.A. Published under the direction of the Master of the Rolls.



ardent was his love for intellectual freedom and moral purity; and, although remaining an orthodox son of the Church, as the Church then was, to the end of his life, his object clearly was to spread knowledge among the people, without regard to the effect that that knowledge might have on long-cherished opinions. For this purpose he advocated the cultivation of the Hebrew and Greek languages, and made almost superhuman efforts to acquire them himself.

Those who look back to the thirteenth century frequently forget how nearly on a par was the intelligence of the educated and the uneducated. In those days men who held themselves to be scholars were, for the most part, content with a little Latin and some scholastic theology; and this latter, while it had the effect of causing them to treat the unlearned with supreme contempt, usually was of the vilest and meanest sort; but among the entirely untaught, there was that genuine love of practical instruction which is so characteristic of our race; besides which there had long been a deeply-seated belief that, in the unknown regions of chemistry, mathematics and astronomy were hidden truths which a student who would turn his eyes stedfastly in that direction, and determine not to be hampered or hindered by ignorance in high places, might assuredly bring to light for their good and that of all succeeding time. In this opinion time has proved them to be right, although the light did not arise in that part of the heavens where it was most looked for.

In these opinions it is probable that the powerful in Church and State to some degree participated. But they were content with things as they were. If philosophy were to advance, who could tell but that it might militate against received traditions—traditions which, as it seemed to them, were the very life and soul of the Christian commonwealth. And think not that this was an idle fear; for had not the Crusaders brought from the far East strange tongues and stranger opinions—Arabic literature and Greek philosophy? And had not these two new discoveries already produced heresies and rebellions more than enough? Were there not already the Albigenses in the south, who avowed that their opinions were to be found in the Greek Scripture; and the Paterini, who, like unto them in detestable unbelief, dwelled in the forests of Germany, gave no obedience to the Pope, and ate flesh on Fridays? Was there not Abelard too, who from the same godless armoury had furnished himself with weapons which had well-nigh worsted the great Saint Bernard himself?

Bacon had not long been a member of the order of St. Francis, ere his genius and his thirst for knowledge displayed itself in colours which were not a little alarming to those who were set over him. We are so ignorant of his life's history, that the struggle he underwent with stolidity in high places is now only to be conjectured. The result, however, gives us an insight into what must have gone before. He was branded as a magician; or, at least, as one who studied unlawful things, was confined to his cell, and writing materials were even, it is said, denied him. This cruelty was not, however, of long duration. The fame and the sufferings of the poor monk came, at last, to the ears of the Pope, who did himself everlasting honour by stepping in to save Bacon from his enemies. In a papal brief, dated May 23rd, in the second year of his pontificate, Clement IV. ordered him to put on record his discoveries, and forward them to Rome without delay. The alacrity with which the neglected scholar set to work, and the immense amount of labour which he performed in little more than a year and a half, are evidence of the intense delight he experienced at his deliverance from the restraints of his ignorant superiors, by one whom he and they alike acknowledged as the highest authority on earth. The pleasure was greater, inasmuch as he had never sought the Papal countenance for his labours.

The volume that we have now before us contains two of the treatises which he wrote at the Pope's desire. They have never before been printed. These documents will modify many of our opinions, both as to Bacon's philosophy and the times in which he lived; for, while showing that even then knowledge could be attained on subjects which we are apt to think are open to us alone, they bring out in the strongest relief the denseness of the human mind as it then ordinarily existed. Bacon believed, as other men of his generation did, that in the all but unknown Greek, Hebrew, and Arabian literatures were contained secrets of the greatest value; he therefore set to work to learn those tongues, and to compile a comparative grammar of them for future philological explorers. Those who know what the difficulties are in mastering two or three ancient languages when surrounded with every help that modern scholarship has to offer will best appreciate him who, without any of these aids, had the courage to begin and the will to carry out so great a labour. Not content even with what could be learned in his own land, he crossed the sea simply for the sake of conversing with foreign students. He did not find many, for he tells us: "There are not four scholars in western Europe who understand Greek, Arabic, or Hebrew grammar. I know them well, for on both sides of the sea I have made diligent inquiries and undergone much labour in these matters."

With that strong faith in the justice and the kindly appreciation of posterity which none but the greatest minds ever seem to have, he looked forward to the time when he might say—

"Jamque opus exegi, quod nec Jovis ira, nec ignis  
Nec poterit ferrum, nec edax abolere vetustas."

Such faith in ultimate justice must ever have its reward; but how strange has that reward hitherto been! For two centuries after his death branded by an ignorant and licentious clergy

as little better than a heretic, and altogether a wizard, he is now thought of, by most of us, more as an illustration of the injustice and ultimate nullity of dogmatism, than on account of those things for which he laboured so bravely and so well. "The fashion of this world passeth away" as surely if not as rapidly in those things that relate to the mind of man, as in the houses he builds, or the garments wherewith he clothes himself; and we are but too apt not to consider out of what material our present greatness has been built. Had there been no Roger Bacon, with his astounding hints on physical science and his proofs of the worthlessness of scholasticism in dealing with it, there might have been no Wycliffe to apply the same principles to a different class of phenomena, and no patient, brave yet doubting people ready to welcome the light when liberty of thought became an avowed principle.

The writings of Bacon will never be popular books, but for the historical and philosophical student they will always retain great value, containing, as they do, the inmost thoughts of a man who exercised so great an influence over the mind of mediæval England.

Mr. Brewer is nearly all that could be wished for as an editor. This is the best edited book of the series, and all are carefully done.

#### BIOGRAPHY.\*

WHENCE is it that so much more attention is devoted to systematic biography in France than in England? Besides the "Biographie Universelle," of which a new edition is appearing, Vapereau's "Dictionnaire des Contemporains," and many similar publications, we have the "New General Biography" of the Didots, the excellence whereof, notwithstanding notable defects, we deem it a duty fervently to commend. This undertaking has reached its thirtieth volume, and fifteen more volumes are to appear. Judged by our English ideas, the work is marvellously cheap. Each volume contains about five hundred pages. The double columns, closely but clearly printed, offer an immense amount of reading; yet each volume is sold in France for three francs, and in England for three shillings. Now, we are not the idolaters of cheapness by itself. Cheapness is only to be valued where an article really good is made accessible through the cheapness to a larger number of persons capable of appreciating it. Books of reference are indispensable to a library, however limited; and the smallest library is not complete without a biographical dictionary. The most earnest students are often the poorest students. There are few, however, so very poor as not to be able to afford for the forty-five volumes of a biographical dictionary seven pounds, especially when this sum is spread over ten years. It is books for the thorough student, not books for the multitude, that it is important to have cheap; and in this respect students in France and Germany have a great advantage over those of England. At what an insignificant price are editions of the ancient classical writers procurable in Germany! The constitution of the English universities, so contrary to the idea and the original objects of a university everywhere, is the main cause why the poor student in England has not the same facilities in regard to books as the poor student in other parts of Europe. We feel, at all events, that it is a disgrace to us that England has not yet produced, cheap or dear, a single biographical dictionary worthy of the name. When will the English student be able to put on his shelves an English biographical dictionary of fifty volumes at half-a-crown the volume, transcending in merit this which we owe to the enterprise of the Didots? Here is scope for generous, high-minded emulation among our publishers. It is but fair to say that the Didots, for several generations, have been scholars as well as publishers, and have thus been raised above the mercenary aspirations of the mere tradesman. It is difficult to believe that the most successful sale of the New General Biography can do more than cover the expenses. But even were it not to do this, the Didots would probably be satisfied with a grand achievement, which honoured alike themselves and their nation. Warmly as we applaud the noble spirit which has animated the Didots in the "New General Biography," and the talent which marks the work as a whole, we yet believe that England could give birth to a biographical dictionary of a much more perfect kind. There are numerous and gross inaccuracies, of which perhaps only a Frenchman could be guilty. These inaccuracies are almost sure to abound where the subject is an English one. We talk of defending England, but there is one thing against which England and Englishmen must always be absolutely defenceless—a Frenchman's blunders. These, in the domain of biography, are not so amusing as elsewhere, for the heroic temper which biography should nourish does not put us much in the mood to laugh. Moreover, in these volumes, French biography occupies more space than the biography of all the world besides. The most eminent persons of every age and country except France are dismissed frequently in a paragraph or two, or even entirely omitted, while in reference to thousands of French noodles and nobodies we have the most detailed narratives. Charles Dickens is despatched in a few meagre lines, but the tribe of Lebruns, whose glory is so essentially a French glory that the majority of Englishmen have never suspected their existence, occupy about fifty columns. We, in England, who have been taught by Shakespeare and the rest of the demigods to know what sublime and genuine poetry is, have been in the habit of believing that the French have had no poets of the foremost rank, and few poets of any kind. But in turning to the pages of the "New General Biography" we encounter French poets by the hundred, from the highest order to the lowest. One of the principles, however, guiding a biographical dictionary, should surely be to give most prominence to that which

\* *Nouvelle Biographie Générale*. Tome trentième. Paris: Didot.

is least known; and thus to the ancient and the foreign. The sons of the fatherland should not be forgotten: but the more illustrious they are, the less it is needful that ought but the outline of their lives should be presented, for it is to be presumed that readers are already acquainted with every incident in their career. From histories of India and from other sources, we have learned the minutest particulars connected with Warren Hastings. But with the doings of Albuquerque we have not had the same means of becoming intimate. It is Albuquerque, therefore, and not Warren Hastings, whose biography should be delineated in detail. Who is ignorant of the parts played by Johnson and Goldsmith in England? How few, even among the intelligent, are aware what Lessing and Herder were to Germany—to mankind? In the "New General Biography," we have further to condemn an insane exaggeration, whenever Frenchmen whose renown has really pierced beyond France come on the scene. We never speak of the great Milton, or the great Shakespeare, but the declamatory Corneille is to the French the great Corneille. We never speak of the great Marlborough, or the great Wellington, but the French have the great Condé. We have kings superior to Henry IV., and to Louis XIV. of France: but we have never thought of signalizing them by the unfortunate and ill-used adjective employed to introduce to us Henry the Great, and Louis the Great. When dealing with Bossuet, the "New General Biography" staggers under the burden of superlatives. Bossuet was a gifted rhetorician: whose rhetoric, however, was continually exploding into bombast. Eloquent in any sense, but a French sense he certainly was not. The pliant tool of Louis XIV., a persecutor, and the promoter and defender of persecution, a man with all the wisdom of the serpent, and but little of the harmlessness of the dove, Bossuet is as unsatisfactory to us in his moral as in his intellectual aspects. But here we have him depicted as the unrivalled orator, and as the last, and we suppose the loftiest, of the Christian fathers. We detest this idiotic extravagance, which could impose on no nation but a nation so vain and childish as the French. In the "New General Biography" we, in addition, are inclined to quarrel with the French standard, which is applied to everything. A Frenchman makes his own individuality the test of creation; a German, by an instinctive metempsychosis, transfigures himself into everything he communes with, even if it were only the paltriest of inorganic substances. An Englishman does neither the one nor the other, but does something between the two. This hitting of the happy mean is not instinctively noble nor sage; it may be explained in fashion unflattering enough. In any case you are nearer the truth with either a German or an English standard than with a French standard. A Frenchman cannot read or understand Richter or Jeremy Taylor, or the magnificent rhapsodist John Wilson, or ought that Nature has stupendously endowed. Give him a man of science to describe, or the performances of a man of science to chronicle, and he is unsurpassed. In the lucid, vivid exposition of scientific discoveries, the French are easily and sublimely masters. A Frenchman can render even the scientific facts interesting which you do not distinctly understand—do not, indeed, care to learn anything about. Frenchmen alone, therefore, can write the biography of a primordial scientific genius. Perhaps, also, in what relates to war as a science they cannot, as writers, be equalled. Read "Foy's History of the Peninsular War," you seize with your sharp and sudden brain war as a science. Read "Napier's History of the Peninsular War," you seize with the poetry and sympathy of your soul war as an art. But how confined is the range of subjects to which the brilliant French mathematical method can be applied; and therefore how defective and deceptive must be the French standard of biography! Nothing of what precedes have we intended in the way of depreciation. We are grateful to the Didots for their comprehensive work, and for the many admirable articles which we find in every one of the volumes. We have simply wished to herald and to help the coming of a similar work in England, which should avoid the faults of its French predecessor; which should be more fruitful, complete, and perfect. Criticism has no worth, except as a creative force. Biography is an essential part of a nation's food; and the more that a nation excels in biography, the more abundantly it finds a precious and indispensable spiritual nourishment. The best modern historians are ours; let ours likewise be the best modern biographers.

#### PALESTINE.\*

THE most hackneyed subjects are often those which a gifted man can make the freshest, and for a very simple reason. Having passed from hand to hand till they are no longer recognisable, they stir his heart to rush back with a great bound toward their source and essence. Few subjects are so hackneyed as Palestine; it seems as if the thousand books published year after year about Palestine were but different editions of the same book. M. Munk, a distinguished scholar of Israelitish descent, has contrived to give us a volume with the breeze and the odour of life gladdening every page. The work is marked by vast erudition, by a reverent spirit, by a catholic sympathy, by patriotic ardour, by courageous criticism, and by a popular style. It perhaps could only have been produced either in France or Germany; for hitherto, in England, everything relating to Palestine has been treated with a slavish superstition, as hostile to piety as to truth, or with a rabid infidelity intolerably offensive. The superstition and the infidelity are the incessant reactions against

each other, and both alike remote from the reality. Whatever becomes of creeds, Palestine will ever remain one of the world's great central facts. The striking physical features of the land; the indestructible vitality of the Hebrew race;—the strange destiny of this race, as inwoven with the destiny of so many other races; the peculiarities of the Bible and the influence of its teachings on religious developments,—enthroned Palestine on a pinnacle which must eternally remain unassailable by scepticism. But the more conspicuous the position which Palestine has achieved, the more sacred the garment in which it hath enwrapped itself, the bolder, if the devouter, should be our brow as we draw near to this puissant agency, this fruitful memory. Such a free offspring of the desert, on the verge of the desert, should be approached with freedom, a freedom scorning both a cold rationalism and a mechanical faith. The friends and foes of Palestine and the Bible in England determine to find nothing in either but their own meagre misconceptions or absurd fore-conceptions. Not what Palestine is, but what they resolve it shall be,—not what the Bible says, but what they compel it to say, this is the Palestine, this the Bible which they offer us. Now M. Munk comes with no pedantic scheme whereto he forces Palestine and the Bible to adapt themselves; he comes with genial glance to see, with loving heart to interpret. His conclusions do not agree with a rigorous orthodoxy, but they must just be as little to the taste of those who regard the whole of religion as a priestly imposture. There is a strong presumption against the notions held by many bigoted Christians respecting Palestine and the Bible, in the circumstance that those notions contradict the ideas uniformly held by the Hebrews on Hebrew things. Surely we should suppose the Hebrews to be best acquainted with Hebrew institutions and customs, with Mosaism, and with the meaning and design of Hebrew books. But Christian zealots practically maintain that none are so ignorant of Hebraism as the Hebrews. What meets us on the threshold of all our inquiries, is the question touching the homogeneity and unity of the Bible. This is a question which the fanatics of our day refuse to discuss. Till, however, it is discussed as M. Munk, with immense learning, with admirable taste, and with what we may almost call filial tenderness, discusses it, religion, as derived from the Bible, has no more powerful pillars to rest on than the cant of the conventicle, the selfishness of the hierarchy, and the fear and credulity of the multitude. It has first to be ascertained who gathered a mass of Hebrew and Greek documents into one, and named them the Bible or Book; secondly, who conferred on such persons the right and authority to do so. If those who fixed the canon, as it is designated, had no right or authority, except what they in their arrogance, or ambition, or enthusiasm, assumed, then each book of the Bible must be tried by its own merits. The foremost German theologians of recent times saw that this was an indispensable process. And how much has religion in Germany gained by the valiant, comprehensive, unbiassed criticism, to which theologians have subjected each portion of the Bible! A good deal has been said about Bibliolatri by Dr. Arnold and others, but they have shrunk from the only remedy for the evil. Criticism of the profoundest, of the most honest, but of the most pious kind, must do its work here as in Germany. It is known that after Rationalism had its reign in Germany—then Straussism, far sublimer views of the Bible and of religion began to prevail, and now prevail in that land of mighty thought and marvellous erudition. We are far from thinking that religion is dependant on external evidence, for religion is the eternal revelation in the human breast, to which every external revelation must be simply a correspondence. This is the leading principle of mysticism; and it has our cordial concurrence. It was the proclamation of Christ, it is the proclamation of the deepest religious experience that the kingdom of God is within a man. But the timid disciples of Christ,—distrusting Christ himself, foolishly dream that if criticism, even the most legitimate, touches the Bible, religion dies: as if religion were not of all human sentiments, of all human influences the most commanding and imperishable. It is overlooked by those who are the champions of the Bible's unity and homogeneity, and of its plenary, literal inspiration, that not only have thus countless contradictions to be reconciled, that what may appear the least noble portions of the Bible drag down to their own level the noblest, and that a painful, unnatural monotony is the result. Such works as Paine's "Age of Reason" owe the baleful empire which they have obtained among the mass of the people entirely to the doctrine of the Bible's unity and homogeneity. The ribaldry of those works may remain, but their wit and logic go for nothing the moment the common theory of the Bible is abandoned. For instance, the epicurean philosophy taught in the Book of Ecclesiastes does not harmonise—is in fierce contrast with the godlike self-sacrifice both taught and practised by Christ. Is not the precept of that self-sacrifice invincible? is not the example thereof immortal, whatever may be the weight or the worth of the Book of Ecclesiastes? Again, most fervent worshippers of the Almighty feel that the Book of Jonah, as an exact and faithful historical record, adds not much to the dignity of the Bible. Accept it, however, as a parable, and it may have its own significance and suggestiveness. If it is to be read as an exact and faithful historical record, why should Christians marvel that the Hindoos devour such mad and monstrous incredibilities? Again, the ablest and most enlightened theologians confess that at least a third of what passes as the Book of Isaiah, cannot have been uttered by that most stupendous of all the prophets; that the whole of the latter part is a sort of prophetic anthology. From this confession Isaiah's glory is neither diminished nor eclipsed, while prophecy remains the same

\* Palestine.—Description Géographique, Historique et Archéologique. Par S. Munk. Paris. Didot.



fulmination of celestial and triumphant truth as ever. Why, indeed, should that individuality which clothes the universe with such beautiful diversity not be allowed to have its application in the Bible? Why should it be demanded that there should be everywhere in the Bible one cut and one colour? The commonplace defenders of the Bible, who do the Bible so much harm, continually parade two alternatives, neither of which is there any necessity for embracing. Proceeding on the modest supposition, that they alone are fitted to judge of the Bible, to pronounce on its contents and intentions, they aver that the Bible must be a homogeneous book, every word, every sentence supernaturally inspired, or the authors of the books must have been deceivers. But we may reject the homogeneity, yet equally reject the calumny that the authors were either deceivers or deceived. Stalwart prophetic souls, bursting into speech, or into song, in the primeval ages, were not bound by our modern pedantries. God had his own way of dealing with them. None can appreciate the prophet who is not himself of prophetic nature; none can decide on inspiration who is not himself inspired; and none can prove a miracle, unless he holds in his hand the long chain of the miraculous. In order that our readers may bring the proper temper to M. Munk's volume have we thus spoken. It is a work written with no polemical purpose, and with no polemical purpose have we ourselves written. It is a delight beyond words for us when we encounter a book remarkable no less for charity than for thought and learning; and such is this by M. Munk. He who peruses it with a childlike mind will know more about Palestine than he ever knew before, and will love the Bible better. Indeed, he will wonder how there were such rich treasures in the Bible which he had never previously discovered.

#### DOMESTIC CHAPLAINS IN ITALY.\*

AS the reader is informed in the dedication to Mr. Thornton Hunt, "Home and the Priest" is ushered into the literary world under sanction of the name of a no less distinguished member of the literary profession, and declared friend to the cause of Italy, than the accomplished and lamented Leigh Hunt. Both he and his son gave their valuable aid in revising Signor Volpe's story, and the correction of the first two volumes was almost the closing labour of the life of the highly esteemed and respected octogenarian champion of liberty and free thought. The English version in which the work meets the public eye is said in the dedication to have been made by an able English pen. It is therefore to be presumed that the task of the Messrs. Hunt was confined to the revision of scenes and passages supposed to be too highly wrought, and of too impassioned a character to comport with English tastes and notions of propriety.

The writer has the advantage of portraying characters and depicting scenes with which he is perfectly familiar. His early life was passed in that district of Italy in which he has placed the chief actors of his tale. Associated with the Roman Catholic Church, not only personally but by family connections, he has had every opportunity of knowing and studying the character of the members of the priesthood, judging of the motives which influence their conduct, testing their sincerity, weighing the temptations and the safeguards attached to their position as an exceptional race of men, and estimating their true influence upon society and the world in general. As military chaplain to the Venetian forces during the brave struggle of '48, he was eyewitness to the stirring events of that period. The interesting episodes of the campaign given in his volumes will at once be recognised by participants in the war, and by the readers of contemporary history and journalism, as eminently life-like and truthful. Nor could it be otherwise, since, in some cases, they are simple descriptions of occurrences which actually took place.

The special object of Signor Volpe's pages would seem to be to point out the evils arising from the obligatory vow of celibacy imposed upon the Roman Catholic priesthood, and the bad consequences necessarily attendant upon the employment of this class of men as domestic chaplains. When the tale opens, the heroine, Lady Amalia Fossombroni, is about to be removed from the convent in which she has been educated, and where her tendencies to excessive piety and devotion make her wish to remain as a professed nun. Her grandmother, an aged lady of rank, whose health is rapidly declining, is desirous of enjoying the society of the young relative, who is the sole link remaining between herself and her departed husband and children. To her great grief, but in obedience to the claims of duty, Amalia quits the convent, and a fortuitous meeting with the friend and playmate of her childhood reawakens her feelings of tenderness for him, and banishes for a time her inclination for conventual retirement. Her direction, both spiritual and temporal, is confided by her grandmother to the domestic chaplain. Don Giuseppe, the priest, a handsome and intelligent young man, possessing refined manners and great conversational powers, embraced his profession in obedience to parental authority without feeling any special vocation for the Church. He is now thrown into daily contact with a beautiful and amiable girl just developing into womanhood. The natural consequence follows. He becomes the subject of emotions and sentiments utterly at variance with his vow of celibacy. Quite in opposition to his true convictions and to serve his own interested ends, he affects to believe, and endeavours to convince his spiritual protégée and pupil, that the new Pope, Pius IX., will carry out his intention of permitting the clergy to

marry. Scenes and pictures are given descriptive of the sufferings inflicted by him upon the object of his sacrilegious love, who as a devout catholic long shuts her eyes to the possibility that he can be actuated by other than the purest and holiest motives in thwarting her union with the man she adores—in arousing and then opposing her latent tendency to a conventual life—and in effecting her marriage with an imbecile devotee for whom she feels nothing but contempt. The author depicts the unscrupulous and tenacious perseverance with which the Roman Catholic priest compasses the misery of his fellow creatures when their interests clash with his own; and the maddened rage and impatience of Don Giuseppe at the unnatural fetters which bind him, until he can no longer support his anomalous position, but after over-stepping all the bounds of prudence and decency, and defying alike the terrors of the Church and the future world of punishment, he gives himself up to his frenzy, and flies his country, a ruined, wretched outcast.

It will be seen that the novel under review is one of a class likely to be useful in drawing attention to the working of the Romish system. The occurrences which have recently taken place in Italy, and the revelations latterly made in the Central provinces and in Austria in connection with the polity of the Catholic Church and the pre-eminently Catholic powers, will have impressed men's minds with the conviction that the infallibility, the unchangeableness, the purity and charity claimed by the Church of Rome, will not stand the test of examination. To those, however, educated in the dogmas of the Catholic Church, and with whom habit has so far become second nature that to think for themselves would be equally at variance with the teachings of their spiritual directors and their own capacity, it may be a startling declaration that the Church has not invariably prohibited the marriage of the clergy, even since clerical celibacy has been one of her recognised rules of discipline. Within little more than two centuries, political powers displaying her banner have allowed priests to marry; nay, more than that, have compelled those not belonging to a religious order to do so. We are told by the modern writer, Michiels, that the Franconian Diet, with the approval of the Archbishops of Bamberg and Wurtzburg, formed on the 15th Feb. 1650, at Nuremberg, a legislative decision which not only allowed priests to marry, but also authorised polygamy. Art. I. of this remarkable document declares that during an interval of ten years, no man will be admitted into a monastery who has not reached his sixtieth year; Art. II. that all priests and curates not belonging to a religious house or chapter are bound to marry without delay; and Art. III. that any man is allowed to marry two wives. "But the holy Catholic Church, the mother of the faithful, had of course some good end in view in sanctioning this deviation from her prescribed rules," will be the exclamation of her dutiful sons and daughters. Certainly she had. The measure was rendered expedient by the excessive zeal manifested in her service by the Emperor Ferdinand II., and his son and successor Ferdinand III. These pious princes of the House of Hapsburg, now so worthily represented by Francis Joseph, had carried on a religious war which had reduced the population of Germany two thirds; that is, from thirty millions to ten millions. About twelve millions had perished by the direct orders of Ferdinand II., whose pious catholic fervour would not suffer a heretic in his dominions. Catholic historians tell to his praise that such was the general poverty and wretchedness of his subjects, that the Imperial troops would frequently disperse groups of persons collected round a caldron in which human flesh was simmering. We cannot, however, dwell upon these amenities of the Catholic religion, but will just refer to the system of confession. The abuse of this practice, which the Church of Rome exalts to a sacrament, is well exemplified in "Home and the Priest." In Don Giuseppe's hands it is an instrument of moral and mental torture, by means of which he compels Lady Amalia to submit to his indomitable will. Another variety of its noxious influence is illustrated by the case of a young clerk residing in the house of the parish priest of Rivalta, whose frankness and straightforwardness make him the object of detestation to his brethren of the cloth. The poor lad is induced by the sophistry of his confessor much against his will, to give information which leads to the temporary disgrace and suspension of his benefactor. His self-upbraidings excite pity; nor can he alleviate them by referring to them in the confessional, because it is his confessor who has betrayed him into this error under pretence of serving the interests of the Church. That the vaunted secrecy of the confessional is often violated, and for the worst purposes, there can be no doubt. Of this a striking proof has been brought to light in the papers left by the Pontifical Government of Bologna, now published by the temporary rulers. From this source we learn that the Bishop of Ajaccio availed himself of his office as confessor to obtain important political knowledge, which he transmitted to Monsignor Marini, Governor of Rome. That the present alarm experienced by Rome at the prospect of losing a portion of her temporal dominions may induce her to enter upon the course of reform, is a consummation as devoutly to be wished as it is little to be hoped for.

#### TRAVEL AND ENTERPRISE.\*

MR. J. G. KOHL, the German traveller, has not, perhaps, told us anything positively new as to the Ojibbeways, but he imparts the matter to us in a new manner, and from a German

\* *Kitchi-Gami: Wanderings round Lake Superior.* By J. G. KOHL. Chapman and Hall.

*The Career, Last Voyage, and Fate of Captain Sir John Franklin.* By Captain SHERARD OSBORN, C.B. Bradbury and Evans.

\* "Home and the Priest." An Italian Tale, in three volumes, by Girolamo Volpe. London: T. C. Newby.

stand-point. It was to the Indian Character that he mainly directed his attention; and, as the tribe we have just mentioned is rapidly expiring, the traits preserved by him are all the more valuable. His talents are decidedly descriptive. He paints what he sees from first impressions, and is seldom at fault in depicting the appearances accurately. The cradle in which the Indian squaw deposits her child has perhaps never been so well described, at any rate so genially. Mr. Kohl sympathises with her tenderly. He watches the mother as she props her small boy up against the tree, runs up and kisses him, puts his hands, ribbons, or cap straight, or sits down for a minute on the grass, lost in admiration of the little one. And then adds, *naïvely*, "Indian mothers are devotedly attached to their children, although they may possess no attractions for Europeans."

These Ojibbeways, natural though they be, are indeed human. Their wigwams are, after all, decent dwellings. "There are poor peasants in Lithuania and Ireland, and wretched Jews in the Polish towns, housed no better or no worse than many of these savages. And the tents which the gipsies put up in Southern Russia and Wallachia, are many of them less artistic and comfortable than the wigwams of the Ojibbeways." We should reflect on this statement; and even we Englishmen can point to an Arab race at home whose dwellings are at least improvable. The rites and ceremonies of the Indians Mr. Kohl also contrives to touch with a human interest, and reports the speeches made at them with spirit. What can be better than this brief touch?—

"Another, with a long rattle-snake's skin round his head, and leaning on his lance, told his story objectively, just as a picture would be described:— 'Once we Ojibbeways set out against the Sioux. We were one hundred. One of ours, a courageous man, a man of the right stamp, impatient for distinction, separated from the others, and crept onwards into the enemy's country. The man discovered a party of the foe; two men, two women, and three children. He crept round them like a wolf, he crawled up to them like a snake, he fell upon them like lightning, cut down the two men, and scalped them. The screaming women and children he seized by the arm, and threw them as prisoners to his friends, who had hastened up at his war yell; and this lightning, this snake, this wolf, this man, my friends, that was—I. I have spoken!'"

We meet with some specimens of mutual affection between the Indian and his dog, which exists notwithstanding that the latter is ill-used by his impatient master. The worse he is treated, the better the poor brute loves his lord. Having lost his owner, one dog "sat down, wearied and despairing, in the market-place, and began addressing such a lamentable howl to heaven, that all the neighbours ran up to see what the matter could be." On the piety of the Indian, also, Mr. Kohl has something peculiar to say; and describes the process how they pass from monotheism to idolatry and fetish-worship. The matter, however, is too long to give entire; though, as a story, it is highly noticeable, and relates to the piece of copper which, when sent to the United States by our traveller, drew their attention to the metallic treasures of the district. The chief from whom he obtained it became a Christian.

On the subject of conversion, Mr. Kohl states that "we must be cautious not to exalt ourselves too much, and deny the natural goodness of the rest of humanity." The virtues of the Indian are the chief obstacles to his conversion. His charity and liberality are boundless;—he will tolerate the murderer, but not the stingy man. Little prone to cupidity, the Indian was solely for revenge. "When a young Indian prepares an expedition, he never dreams, like the thievish comrades of Ulysses, about the plunder he can obtain, but only of the relatives he can avenge, and the blood-foes he can punish. On the battle-field his first and most important business is to take the scalp of the enemy he has killed. Having this, he is satisfied, and leaves the ornaments on the corpse, which a predatory Arab or Afghan would fall upon first."

Mr. Kohl writes in a true loving spirit, and repays the hospitality he received with befitting gratitude. He sets the conduct of his hosts in the fairest light; he remembers the stories told him, even by an ungainly old woman, with pleasure, and repeats them in the most attractive form; he dwells upon their traditions with reverence, and finds the best and most christian meaning for them; he regards their symbolism and allegories with affection; even to their painted faces he became reconciled; and he condescends to minutiae and particularity of detail which testify to his diligence and labour, but at the same time prove that it was a labour of love. Sports, often described before, are here again described with fresh emotion. But particularly does he dwell on the Indian virtues; restating at the end of the book what he had stated in the beginning and middle, namely, that "the Indians practise many christian virtues naturally, and hence they are quite easy to them when they are converted." In conclusion, he tells us further, that "the Indians living round Lake Superior are as attached to their Kitchi-Gami, as the French Swiss to their Lake of Geneva." But we must here close our notice of a delightful book, which cannot be read without instruction.

We shall connect with this book one of a somewhat different character, though associated with travel; inasmuch as it displays the energy and fortitude of the civilized man in subduing natural impediment, in order to advance discovery and science. It is not the wild savage here who is the hero, but the cultivated heroic European—the brave, the dauntless Englishman, that we have portrayed. Captain Osborn has told the tale of Sir John Franklin in an enthusiastic spirit, and with picturesque power. The canvass glows, the figures live and breathe. He begins his narrative with young Franklin's innate love of the sea. Sent on board a merchant-ship in order to disgust him with his profession, Franklin boldly mastered the discomforts, and heard of Nelson and the Nile with a bounding heart that yearned to partake the danger and the glory of great

enterprises. And within a year "the Lincolnshire boy" shared in the terrible sea fight of Copenhagen. We next find him on board the discovery-ship Investigator, and thus introduced to that career which has made his name famous to all generations.

The vessel was commanded by his relative, Captain Flinders, who had already explored the great South Sea; but proving unseaworthy, the vessel was exchanged at Port Jackson, in 1803, for H.M.S. Porpoise, which was wrecked soon after among the reefs of Torres Straits. Franklin obtained a passage in the Earl Camden, commanded by Nathaniel Dance, which formed part of a fleet of fifteen East Indiamen, that, voyaging from the Canton river, had to encounter the French privateer, the Marengo, 74, Admiral Linois, and his three satellite frigates, and came off with flying colours. Truly, Captain Dance was a gallant commodore. This was the sight then witnessed without wonder, but not without admiration recorded—namely, "a French squadron of men-of-war, perfectly equipped, led by one of their most distinguished officers, retreating before a fleet of armed merchant-ships." Franklin was destined to be yet a partner in a more glorious victory—that of Trafalgar, in 1805. On a subsequent occasion—that of the attempt to capture New Orleans—he was for the first time wounded. The long peace threw Franklin back on maritime discovery, and on the 25th April, 1818, he was sailing with the first Arctic expedition of this country down the Thames. The adventure is described, with all its appalling detail of horrors, by Captain Osborn. In six months the vessels returned from the North Sea, shattered and no longer seaworthy. Franklin's ship, indeed, had been discovered to be so leaky, from some shipwright's carelessness, that it was needful to keep half a watch of men ever at the pumps. So constantly at fault have been the arrangements made by the Admiralty!

Within a year after this, Franklin returned to the frigid zone, exploring the coasts of arctic America, and did not return until 1822; when the tale he had to tell astonished his countrymen—such hardships had been endured, such fortitude exhibited, such honour achieved—furnishing "a beautiful example of the triumph of mental and moral energy over mere brute strength."

We need not lengthen this article by relating the particulars of Sir John Franklin's last voyage, undertaken at the age of sixty; of the uncertainty that hung over its issue; or of the endeavours made by the country, and Sir John Franklin's widow, to ascertain the fate of the adventurous commander and his noble crew. Captain Osborn has put together the discoveries made by "The Fox;" and has placed in a striking light the fact that Sir John Franklin had attained his object before death overtook him. It is thus presented:—

"A record was left by Gore and Des Voeux, in a cairn beyond Cape Victory, on the west coast of King William's Land. It tells us that 'On May 24, 1847, all were well on board the ships, and that Sir John Franklin still commanded.' Graham Gore probably traversed the short distance between this cairn and that on Cape Herschel in a week, and we can fancy him, and the enthusiastic Des Voeux casting one glance upon the long-sought shores of America, and hastening back to share their delight with those imprisoned in the ships. Alas! why do their shipmates meet the flushed travellers with sorrow imprinted on pale countenances? Why as they cheer the glad tidings they bring, does the tear suffuse the eye of these rough and hardy men? Their chief lies on his death-bed; a long career of honour and of worth is drawing to its close. The shout of victory, which cheered the last hour of Nelson and of Wolfe, rang not less heartily round the bed of the gallant Franklin, and lit up that kind eye with its last gleam of triumph. Like them, his last thought must have been of his country's glory, and the welfare of those whom he well knew must now hope in vain for his return."

Thus has Captain Osborn, by an allowable exercise of the faculty, called on his imagination to supply an hiatus of history which there is no hope of our ever being able to fill up with a chronicled fact. In like manner, and in a similar spirit, he has pursued the sorrowful tale to its close, and painted from fancy the fate of brave men, who perished in the midst of a career of usefulness and honour. Mourn not for them; for their virtues are written on the tablets of their country's heart!

#### RECENT NOVELS.\*

THE author of *Getting On* has allotted himself a difficult task. It might appear, at first sight, that to write a novel based on subjects with which every man, woman, and even child, whatever their position in society, may be supposed to be familiar, would not, in the end, turn out so formidable an undertaking as an attempt to depict the ideas, manners, and customs of a past generation. But this is, in reality, not the case. The latter style of production, indeed, necessitates a great deal of laborious study in the perusal of old manuscripts and other ancient authorities; but the real safeguard of the author lies in this very necessity, which prevents the majority of people from seeking the information which would enable them to arrive at a true judgment as to the correctness of the novelist in depicting characters belonging to an age separated from us by so great a period of time. The modern novelist, however, who revels amid the haunts of every-day life, enlarging upon topics on which are entertained so many opinions, topics at once political and theological, must necessarily expose himself to the remorseless shafts and party criticism of one or other of the contending factions of the day. It is utterly impossible that he should so regulate his ideas, and the modes by which he gives expression to them, as to steer clear of sectarian or party enmity; in pleasing one, it follows as a natural consequence that he offends another; and thus he finds his

\* *Getting On: a Tale of Modern English Life.* Two Vols. James Hogg and Sons.

*Elfie in Sicily.* Two Vols. Chapman and Hall.

*The Hallow Isle Tragedy.* Three Vols. Chapman and Hall.



position particularly dangerous and disagreeable. But such authors, who deal in political subjects, must defy the sarcasms of interested critics, and the ill-natured remarks of narrow-minded bigots, and shield themselves from their malice under the ample robe of just and conscientious principles, boldly demonstrating what the "still small voice" within has revealed to them as truths, and then, unmoved by all selfish animosities, wait patiently for the verdict of a discriminating public.

*Getting On* must be considered a novel of this class. And the author has shown considerable talent and judgment in stating his opinions broadly, and without reference to the feelings of adverse politicians. According to him, the great stumbling-block to the moral regeneration of the masses is the idol "respectability," which prevents the wearers of silks and satins from stretching forth a hand to raise the victims of vice, improvidence, and folly. Upon this point the hero is decidedly an enthusiast; and though the picture which he draws of the heartlessness of wealth and the misery of poverty may be a little severe, it is, upon the whole, only too true.

The story is extremely interesting. All the characters are well and efficiently developed; and have the extra advantage of entirely engrossing the attention and sympathies of the reader. An outline of the plot is as follows. A young man, of good family, having imbibed opinions hostile to the class of which he is a member, early devotes his life to the moral improvement of the masses, and the destruction of "caste" as a barrier to the natural intercourse between man and his brethren. Having signified his intention of beginning the good work by a low marriage, he becomes thereupon cast out and alienated from his family. This marriage, however, does not take place. The hero, now entirely dependent on his own exertions, enters society under very unfavourable circumstances, but which do not prevent his becoming infected with the prejudices of those by whom he is surrounded; and his zeal for the good cause, together with his love of the village maiden, begin sensibly to diminish. He then introduces himself into the ranks of literature, and becomes so successful that he quite loses sight of the object for which he had formerly sacrificed his natural inheritance. Circumstances, however, tend to the revival of the old feelings, and in a moment of religious enthusiasm, he disposes of all his property, renounces the prospects of a brilliant literary career, and goes forth, in rags and wretchedness, to preach the vanity of all earthly possessions to the astonished multitude.

*Elfie in Sicily* can scarcely be called a novel. It is in fact a series of chapters descriptive of a young lady's tour through Sicily, and the thoughts and feelings called into existence by the novelty of the scenes by which she is surrounded; the whole being connected together by a slight underplot, in the shape of a little interesting love story.

This work is admirably written, the author powerfully delineating the national peculiarities of Sicilian life and character; while the variety of scenery presented to the imagination of the reader is given in language so vivid and exciting, as almost to betray us into the delusion that we are visiting in person the shores of that most delightful of European countries. The author also indulges in a detailed account of the principal edifices, temples, monasteries, palaces, &c., and that in a manner calculated to enchain the attention of even the most indifferent reader. The character of *Elfie* is, perhaps, one of the most beautiful and fanciful creations in writings of this class; and though such a being could never exist except in the ideal of a poet's imagination, yet that ideal is so chaste and delicate, that the impossibility of its ever being realized fills us with regret.

In contrast to her stands out the less perfect character of the hero *Vyllers*, whose brooding, dissatisfied mind, ever searching after the incomprehensible, is easily led astray by the specious doctrines of the Church of Rome. In fact, we can safely predict that the perusers of these two volumes will derive from them considerable entertainment, together with much valuable information.

The *Hallow Isle Tragedy* is a class novel of which we entirely disapprove, being calculated not to elevate the mind of the reader, but rather to depress it. We are aware that some of our most popular works of fiction are fashioned after the same model, but that does not render the model itself any the less objectionable. In the present instance the interest excited is of a gloomy, unsatisfactory kind. The principal personage in the story is a young Scottish clergyman, with somewhat contracted ideas of religion in general, and who is deputed by the leaders of the religious movement which, in the year 1843, agitated the whole of Scotland, to win over to their cause the erude, unlettered inhabitants of *Hallow Isle*.

There is little interest in this novel, except that kind of feverish impatience which is generally excited when anything in the shape of a mystery is carried systematically through three long volumes; and when, at last, the riddle is solved, it turns out to be of a nature at once revolting and degrading.

#### THE CHURCH AND THE CLERGY.\*

THE rapid advance in our civilization of late years, the increase of popular education, the general progress of the nation, and the immense and daily augmented facilities in correspondence and communication, have created a new literary want, which was no sooner felt than energetic and painstaking compilers sprang up to supply the necessity. The great extent of our commerce, and the enor-

mous increase in popular journals have also lent their aid to foster a desire to be acquainted with the whereabouts and professions of those who are, or are likely to become, our customers, our patients, our clients, or our readers. To fill this void, the gigantic *Post Office Directory*—a wonder of the century—with all its care and minuteness of description, has not, as yet, been found sufficient; though it goes on, year by year, increasing in bulk, and throwing off tributary streams of local knowledge, in the shape of country editions, which, in their aggregate almost equal the metropolitan original. Classes and professions demand something (indeed a great deal) more than this to supply the often-required information as to the leading or insignificant members of their own particular walk in life, and hence we have the *Army and Navy Lists*, containing particulars of the rank and services of every individual who holds Her Majesty's commission; the now venerable *Law List*, in its dingy red binding, seems each year to acquire fresh vigour—and, notwithstanding the vast increase of candidates for the mysteries of *Themis*, gives in each new issue fuller information as to the host of barristers and solicitors, whose mighty mass is besieging the courts of Chancery or Common Pleas in the hope of extracting a living income therefrom; and the *Medical Directory* supplies a list of the duly qualified to advise, blister, bolus, or heal us. Then there are the *Royal Red Book*, or the *Court Guide*, for your fashionable readers; the *Peerage*, for your noblemen and your flunkies; the *Parliamentary Guide* for your politicians. All these had been completely and well put together, and their various compilers had spared no time or expense to make them as near perfection as possible. One profession alone remained without a perfect register; there was no book extant which could be depended upon to give a complete list of the English clergy, with their antecedents and present rank. True, there were the old *Clergy List*, the *University Calendar*, and *Parliamentary Blue Books* for the curious and persevering; but no work had appeared, containing, in one compact mass, the information that had to be elaborated from these various sources, until the projectors of the volume before us took the matter in hand. The "*Clerical Directory*" is certainly as fully entitled to the rank of a standard work of its kind, as the most careful and copious of its contemporaries of the other professions; and, indeed, with some few exceptions, we have seen nothing to equal it in point of information. An irate ecclesiastic here and there may be found, no doubt, ready to excommunicate Mr. Crockford, and may write to the papers because the compiler has accidentally overlooked the fact of his reverence being a member of the Statistical, the Entomological, or the Syro-Egyptian societies, or that he carried away the gold medal somewhere for something fifty years ago; but the bulk of the ecclesiastical profession will, we have little doubt, fully appreciate the labour and carefulness which have brought together such an enormous mass of facts with so few trifling errors and omissions.

This Directory has not attained its present value all at once—the present is the sixth year of publication, and each annual has been rendered superior to its predecessor, until at length it may fairly be considered as indispensable to every one whose profession or taste lead them to study the details of our influential and extensive hierarchy. Here are the christian and surnames of every clerk in holy orders, from the Primate of England to the humblest Welsh curate, with the *alma mater* who fostered his education, the list of his college honours, and the date of his admission to each succeeding rank in the Church. If he be clothed with civic dignity as a rural magistrate, here it is set forth; if he wield the scholastic birch, or (*fortunatus nimium*) be an inspector of schools, a surrogate, a rural dean, or a chancellor, it shall be found duly chronicled in these pages, which also furnish to the inquisitive the gross amount of his income,—as far, that is, as it can be ascertained,—and likewise what share he has taken in that making of many books of which Solomon tells us "there is no end." And here we cannot but remark upon the enormous addition to the stores of the bookseller (or of the trunkmaker) which our reverend brethren contribute—out of some eighty thousand names before us, at least a sixth of the number have dabbled more or less in printing ink; the outpourings of some being confined to a small extent, while in other cases a column or a column and a half is required to enumerate the mere titles of the priestly author's writings. Curious contrasts abound in every page; take one example, in which we find the names of "Donaldson, John William, D.D.," and "Doria, Samuel,"—the former, among a host of similar works, distinguished as the author of the "*Theatre of the Greeks*," the "*New Cratylus*," "*Varronianus*," and as the translator of the "*Book of Jasher*"—while he of the noble Italian patronymic warbles mildly, "*The Sunday School, a Poem*," "*The Grammar School, a Poem*," and an "*Ode on the Crystal Palace*!" The bulk of this body of writing consists of practical or argumentative treatises upon divinity and doctrine; though there are those who, wooing the muses, tread in the steps of *Millman, Croly*, or *Kingsley*; and not a few learnedly discourse of chemistry, geology, or astronomy. Contrasts, too, of a less welcome kind are found in turning the pages of this instructive and suggestive volume, as for instance when we find one London Vicar at the head of a parish which brings him a couple of thousands a year, enjoying in addition a canonry of a thousand per annum; while another London Vicar (without any canonry) has exactly forty pounds a year—his gross income, according to our guide. Here we find a rural incumbent attending to the spiritual wants of a population of ten thousand souls, his remuneration being some two hundred and fifty pounds a-year, and in the next page we stumble upon another country parish whose rector's gross income is quoted at £586, while his flock number just five hundred and forty-four. When too, we find the lay improPRIATOR's share of the tithes to be £350, in a certain parish and the rector's share to be only twelve pounds, we are not

\* *Crockford's Clerical Directory for 1860: being a Biographical and Statistical Book of Reference for Facts relating to the Clergy and the Church.* Published Annually. London: John Crockford.

surprised that reformers would fain be meddling with the Church as well as with the constitution. Of the antecedents of some of the clergy we read such passages as, "formerly Captain in the Fifty-ninth Foot," "formerly Lieutenant on board H.M.S. Irresistible," "formerly naval instructor of the Royal William," and in one case "formerly in the Colonial office," while *ci-devant* Jews and Roman Catholics are to be found here and there. We find such illustrative hints but rarely, however, and we would suggest that a future edition should be enriched with an account of the most striking events in the biography of some of those eminent churchmen now living who have become identified, by their abilities or from circumstances, with the history of our times, in politics or in literature. And here we may observe that the much mooted question of the incomes of the higher branches of the Established Church are touched upon with a very reverent, not to say partial hand. We should not omit to notice, that although particulars of each clergyman's status and career are confined to the members of the Church of England, the editors, determined to make this book of reference as complete as possible, have added appendices containing lists of the clergy of the Established Church of Ireland, and of the Episcopal Church in Scotland, taken from the best official sources. The work is well executed on good paper, and the type in which it is printed is of a peculiar character, well suited to facilitate reference.

#### ARCHITECTURAL JOURNALS.\*

THE number and success of the periodicals devoted to the Fine Arts in the present day may fairly be taken as indications, as gratifying as they are significant, of the advance of the age in refinement and pure taste. Of the journals devoted to these kindred topics, one of the youngest, but by no means the least important, is the *Building News*, whose fifth volume—a portly but withal an elegant tome—now lies on our table. When class publications of this kind first came into vogue, they treated principally—nay, almost entirely—of details of construction and materials, and of other technicalities, which, though doubtless important, possessed interest of a peculiar kind, which could only be shared by one class—"the trade," and those connected with it. Times are altered since that, and we and its first days could hardly have expected that there would ever be room for a rival publication of that class, much less one which should adopt a wider range of subjects, and, by a vigorous competition, improve its predecessor, at the same time that it succeeded in firmly establishing itself in public estimation. It is not merely the builder and the architect, now-a-days, who take an active interest in questions of styles, orders, and decorations; all classes of the educated public have something to say, and wish also to learn something more upon these and similar subjects; and the conductors of the papers we have alluded to have found their account in adapting their pages to the taste and capacity of general readers, without neglecting the objects for which they were originally set on foot. The present volume of the *Building News* is a handsome quarto of some eleven hundred pages, exceedingly well printed, and neatly bound. So much for its appearance; the contents are ably written and judiciously edited. They comprise original articles on constructive and decorative architecture, and the sister arts of painting and sculpture, as well as on sanitary science and civil engineering. In the list of contributors we find the names, amongst others, of Messrs. Macquoid, John Bell, and Samuel Huggins; and there are many able papers by writers whose initials or pseudonyms only are given. The topics treated possess not only interest but variety: we find the controversy between the Gothicists and Classicists warmly carried on here; the vile condition of the Serpentine and the Thames; all the new schemes of metropolitan improvements;—the gas and water supply are amply discussed; and archaeology and geology are not neglected. In addition to this all the current news, as far as it concerns the fine arts or the architectural and building professions, is given in a condensed form. Thus, we have the lectures at the Royal Academy and the learned societies, reports of all art exhibitions, and reviews of all books upon such subjects. Such important subjects as the builders' strike are well handled, while the advertising column nuisance, drinking fountains, and other minor matters, receive their share of attention; a summary of such parliamentary debates as have an architectural bearing is not wanting; and even the drama is brought under notice, as far as the accessories of the scene painter and the mechanist are concerned. The book is illustrated by upwards of seventy excellent engravings of architectural subjects, the greater part of which display much artistic excellence, the most conspicuous being a really magnificent work—the interior of the church of All Saints, Margaret-street, drawn by Mr. Macquoid, and engraved by Mr. Jewitt. This is one of the most perfect wood engravings that has ever been produced; the beautiful outlines of Mr. Beresford Hope's splendid hobby are given in admirable perspective by the artist, and the lights and shades are brilliantly contrasted; while in the execution full justice has been done by the engraver to the ability of the draughtsman; the block is also extremely well printed—a most important point, and one too frequently neglected, to the horror and disgust of artists and engravers.

#### SERIALS.

THE *Dublin University Magazine*, like other serials, has its own account of the voyage of the Fox. It is written by the Rev. Professor Haughton, F.R.S., and is illustrated with a portrait of Captain

\*The *Building News*: a Weekly Illustrated Record of the Progress of Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, Engineering, Metropolitan Improvements, and Sanitary Reform. Volume the Fifth. London.

McClintock. Victor Hugo is subjected to some severe criticism on "La Légende des Siècles," particularly where he touches on sacred subjects, to the proper treatment of which he is adjudged to be unequal. On other points the critic awards him high commendation, notwithstanding the vein of exaggeration which runs through all the poems. "The Season Ticket" continues to be amusing.—The *North British Review* contains eleven excellent articles; one, on the silence of Scripture, is admirable in its idea and the tone of its expression. An article on Erasmus is also good; and there is considerable information in another on Austria. One fact is astounding, namely: "The amount of taxation in Austria has increased seventy per cent. since 1849, a rate perfectly without precedent in history." An artistic paper on Dr. Wilkinson's opinions on Colour enters into the controversy between Goethe and Newton, and embraces much clever speculation.—The *Spiritual Magazine* defends Mr. Harris from an article in the *Morning Advertiser*, and also pits Mr. Howitt against Mr. Charles Dickens; but the main questions at issue are not advanced by the contents of the number. People who seek to prove the immortality of the soul by such questionable phenomena, must indeed be inveterately sceptical, however much they may wish to assume the character of believers. The subject requires to be more philosophically treated.—We have duly received the current parts of "The Welcome Guest," "Once a Week," "Moore's National Airs," Charles Knight's "English Cyclopaedia," and Routledge's "Illustrated Natural History;" all of which maintain their well-earned reputation.—No. XII. of Parker's "Historical Tales" has also reached us. It contains a tale of Medieval Nestorianism, entitled "The Sea Tigers." Part VII. of "Plain or Ringlets" will interest the sporting world, and has a coloured illustration.

#### LETTER FROM ITALY.

(SPECIAL.)

#### TRIALS FOR MURDER IN THE PAPAL STATES.

ROME, 31st January, 1860.

THE idler about the streets of Rome may, from time to time, catch sight—on blank walls and dead corners—of long white strips of paper, covered with close-printed lines of most uninviting-looking type, and headed with the Papal arms—the cross keys and tiara. If, being like myself, afflicted with an inquisitive turn of mind, he takes the trouble of deciphering these hieroglyphic documents, his labour will not be altogether thrown away. These straggling strips, stuck up in out of the way places, glanced at by a few idle passers-by, and torn down by the street vagabonds after a day or two, for the sake of the paper itself, are the sole public records of justice issued, or allowed to be issued, under the Pontifical Government. Trials are here carried on always with closed doors. No spectators are admitted; no reports of the proceedings are published. In capital cases, however, after the execution of the criminal has taken place, a sort of *procès verbal* of the case and of the trial is placarded on the walls of the chief towns. This is the sole concession made to publicity by the Papal authorities; and this is all the public ever knows about the course of justice.

Within the last few days, three executions have taken place in different parts of the Papal territory, and in consequence three such statements have been issued by the Government. The facts narrated, and the circumstances alluded to in them, throw a strange light on the administration of justice, and the daily life of this priest-ruled country. In these statements, be it remembered, there is no question of political or clerical bias. The facts herein stated are all facts admitted by the authorities of their own free will and pleasure—and if, as I think, these facts tell most unfavourably for our clerical rulers, it is, at any rate, out of their own mouths they are convicted. All, therefore, that I propose to do, is, having these Government statements before me, to tell the stories that they contain as shortly and as clearly as I can, adding no comment of my own but what is necessary to explain the facts in question. Let me take first the case of LUIGI BONCI.

Some three years ago, then, there lived in the hamlet of Cannara, near Perugia, a family called BONCI. They belonged to the peasant class, and were poor, even among the Papal peasantry. The family consisted of the father and mother, and of their son and daughter, both grown up. Between the father and son there had long been ill blood. The cause of this want of harmony is but indistinctly stated, but apparently it was due to the irregular habits of the son, and to the severity of the father, while this domestic misery was rendered doubly bitter by the almost abject want of the household. On the night of November the 9th, 1856, VENANZIO BONCI, the father, MARIA ROSA his wife, and their daughter CATERINA, were at supper in the miserable room which formed the whole of their dwelling, waiting for the return of the son LUIGI, who had been absent ever since the morning. There had been frequent quarrels before about LUIGI's stopping out at night, and now it was past midnight. There was no light in the room, except a faint flicker from the embers, and the feeble glimmering of the starlight, which entered through the open window. A noise was heard in the stable underneath the room, and the father, thinking it was his son, shouted three or four times but got no answer. A few minutes after LUIGI entered without the lantern, which he had left below in the stable, and although his sister bade him good night he made no reply. As he entered the room, the father called out, "A fine time of night to come home!" "What then?" was the only answer given by LUIGI. "You have never been home since the morning," went on the father. "What then?" was still the only answer. The father then told the son to hold his tongue, and again received the same reply. At last, VENANZIO, losing his temper, called out, "Be quiet, or I will break your head," or, according to one story, "I'll murder you," to which LUIGI only replied, "I may



as well die to-day as to-morrow." After that there was a short scuffle heard, and VENANZIO suddenly cried out, as if in pain, "My God! my God!" The mother and daughter screamed for help, but by the time the neighbours had arrived with a light, LUIGI had run off. VENANZIO was found reeling to and fro, with blood pouring from several wounds, and in spite of medical aid he died in the course of a few hours. Almost immediately after the commission of the crime LUIGI was found by the gendarmes in the cottage of an uncle, and arrested on the spot.

These, as far as I can learn from the very confused documents before me, are all the facts admitted without question, or, more strictly speaking, which the Government states to have been unquestioned. LUIGI was arrested on the night of the murder. The evidence, such as it was, could be ascertained in twenty-four hours, and yet the prisoner was never brought to trial till the 3rd of May, 1858—that is, eighteen months afterwards. On that day LUIGI BONCI was arraigned before the Civil and Criminal Court of Perugia, on the two counts of parricide, and of having illegal weapons in his possession. The court was composed of the president, judge, assistant judge, and deputy judge of the district. These gentlemen (all, I should state, lay officials) were assisted by the public prosecutor, and the Government counsel for the defence. The course of proceedings is stated to have been as follows: Prayers were first offered up for the Divine guidance. The prisoner was introduced and identified; the written depositions were read over; a narrative of the facts was given by the president; the prisoner was called upon to reply to the charges alleged against him; the witnesses for the crown and the prisoner were heard respectively; the counsel for the prosecution called upon the court to condemn the prisoner, and was replied to by the counsel for the defence. The discussion was then declared closed, and after the judges had retired to deliberate their sentence was given.

All the facts I have been able to put together about the case are gathered from this sentence, and those of the courts of appeal. These sentences, however, are extremely lengthy, very indistinct, and encumbered with a good deal of legal phraseology. As they are all alike, I propose to give an abstract of this present one as a specimen of all. The sentence begins with the following moral remarks: "Frequent paternal admonitions, alleged scarcity of daily food, and the evil counsels of others, had alienated the heart of the prisoner to such an extent, that feelings of affection and reverence towards his own father VENANZIO had given place to contempt, disobedience, ill-will, and even worse. No one, however, would have supposed that he was capable of becoming a parricide, as was too clearly proved on the fatal night in question." After these remarks, comes a narration of the facts, much in the words in which I have given them. This is followed by a statement of the arguments for the prosecution and the defence, consisting of a number of verbose paragraphs, each beginning "Considering that etc." The case for the prosecution was clear enough. The medical evidence proved that the father died of the wounds received on the above-named night. The fact that the wounds were inflicted by the prisoner was established by the evidence of his mother and sister, who overheard the quarrel between him and his father; by his flight after commission of the crime; by the discovery of a blood-stained knife dropped on the threshold; by the deposition of the father before his death; and lastly, by the confession of the prisoner himself, who admitted the crime, though under extenuating circumstances. The fact that the sister never heard the knife open, although it had three clasps, was asserted to be evidence that the prisoner entered the room with his knife open, intending to commit the crime. This charge of *malice prepense* was corroborated by the son's refusal to answer his father, by the insolence of his language, and by the number and vehemence of the stabs he inflicted.

The prisoner's defence was also very simple. According to his own story, he was half drunk at his return home. His father not only taunted and threatened him, but at last seized the door bar, and began knocking him about the head; and then, maddened with pain and passion, he drew out a knife he had picked up on the road, and stabbed his father, hardly knowing what he did. On the bare statement of the facts I should think this story not improbable, but as no details whatever are given of the evidence on either side it is impossible to judge. The court, at any rate, decided that there was no proof of the prisoner being drunk, and that the evidence of his father having struck him was of a suspicious character, "while," they add, "it would be absurd and immoral to maintain that a father, whose right and duty it is to correct his children (and indeed on this occasion correction was abundantly deserved by the insolent demeanour of LUIGI) could be considered to provoke his son by a slight personal chastisement." The son, however, was over one-and-twenty, a fact to which no allusion is made. As a forlorn hope, according to the statement of the sentence, the counsel for the defence asserted, that whatever the crime of the prisoner might be it was not parricide, from the simple fact that LUIGI was not VENANZIO'S son. The facts of the case appear to have been, that MARIA ROSA BATTISTONI, being then unmarried, gave birth, in July, 1835, to a son, who was the prisoner LUIGI; that shortly afterwards the Vicar of Cannara gave information to the Episcopal Court of Assisi, that MARIA ROSA had been seduced by VENANZIO BONCI, and had had an illegitimate child by him; that, in consequence, a formal demand was addressed by the Court to VENANZIO, and that he acknowledged the paternity of the child, and expressed his readiness to marry the mother. The marriage was therefore solemnized, and the child entered in the church books as the legitimised son of "VENANZIO" and "MARIA BONCI," in June, 1836. Against this strong pre-

sumptive evidence of paternity, and the inference to be drawn from the child having been brought up and educated as VENANZIO'S son, there were only to be set alleged expressions of doubt on the father's part, as to his being really the father, and also certain confessions of the mother, to different parties, that LUIGI was not the child of her husband. All these confessions, however, it is asserted, were proved to be subsequent in date to the son's arrest, and therefore probably made with a view to save his life. This plea is in consequence rejected.

No defence was attempted to the second count. Both charges are, therefore, declared fully proved; and as the punishment for parricide is public execution, and the penalty for having in one's possession (a lighter offence by the way than using) any forbidden weapon, consists of imprisonment from two to twelve months, and of a fine of from five to sixty scudi; therefore the Court "condemns LUIGI BONCI, for the first count, to be publicly executed in Cannara, and to make compensation to the heirs of the murdered man, according to the valuation of the Civil Courts, and to pay the costs of the trial; and, on the second count, the Court considers the first three months of the incarceration the prisoner has already undergone to be sufficient punishment, coupled with a fine of five scudi and the loss of the weapon."

This summary will, I fear, give the reader too favourable an impression of the original sentence. In order to make the story at all intelligible, I have had to pick out my facts from a perfect labyrinth of sentences and parentheses. All I, or any one else, can state, is that these seem to be the facts which seem to have been proved by the witnesses. What the character of the evidence was, or what was the respective credibility of the witnesses, or how far their assertions were borne out or contradicted by circumstantial proofs, are all matters on which (though the whole character of the crime depends on them) I can form no judgment.

This trial was concluded on the 3rd of May, 1858, and yet the above sentence, it appears, was not communicated to the prisoner till the 15th of October in that year. When the formal announcement of the sentence was made, the prisoner declared his intention of appealing against its justice. By the Papal law every person condemned for a criminal offence has the right of appealing to the Supreme Pontifical Court. It is, therefore, needless to say that in all cases where the prisoner is sentenced to death, an appeal is made on any ground, however trivial, as the condemned culprit cannot lose and may gain by this step. The practical and obvious objection to this unqualified power of appeal, is that the supreme clerical court is the real judge, not the nominal lay court, which does little more than register the fact that the crime is proved *prima facie*.

On the 15th February, 1859, after a delay of four months from the appeal, the Lower Court of the Supreme Tribunal of the Sacred College assembled in Rome to try the case of "LUIGI BONCI." The Court was composed of six "most illustrious and reverend judges," all monsignori and all dignitaries of the Church, assisted by a public prosecutor and counsel for the defence, attached to the Papal Exchequer. The course of proceedings appears to be much the same as in the inferior court, except that no witnesses save the prisoner were examined orally, and the whole evidence was given by written depositions. At last, having first invoked the most sacred name of God, the Court pronounced their sentence. This sentence is in great measure a recapitulation of the preceding one. There were either no new facts adduced, or none are alluded to. The grounds for the defence are the same as on the former occasion, namely, the provocation given by the father, and doubt as to the son's paternity. There were, in fact, two questions before the court. First, whether the crime committed was murder or manslaughter; and if it was murder, whether the murderer was or was not the son of the murdered man. Instead, however, of facing either of these questions, the Court seems to enter upon considerations which, to our notions, are entirely irrelevant. The degree to which paternal corrections can be carried without abuse, and the problem whether a man who kills a person whom he believes and has reason to believe to be his father, but who is not so in fact, is guilty or not of the sin of parricide, seem rather questions for clerical casuistry than considerations which bear upon facts. The final conclusion drawn from all these reflections, is that the Court confirms the judgment of the Perugian tribunal in every respect.

This decision of the Court with respect to the appeal is not communicated for two months more—that is, not till the 22nd of April—to the prisoner, who at once appeals against the execution of the verdict to the upper court of the supreme tribunal. On the 13th of May the case comes on for its third and last hearing. The court is again composed of six high clerical dignitaries, assisted by the same official counsel for the defence and prosecution as before. The same course of proceedings is adopted, except that the prisoner is not introduced into court or examined. Again, after invoking the most holy name of God, the tribunal pronounces, not its sentence, but its decision. This verdict alludes only to the two grounds on which the appeal is based. The first is the question of paternity, which is at once dismissed as being a matter of evidence which has been already decided. The second ground of appeal is a legal and technical one. The defence appears to have pleaded that the whole trial was vitiated by the fact that the arrest was an illegal one. On both sides it was admitted that the prisoner was arrested without a warrant, and not "*in flagrante delicto*," and that therefore the arrest was, strictly speaking, illegal. The Court, however, decides that, though the prisoner was not taken in the act, yet his guilt was so manifest that the police were justified in acting as if they had caught him perpetrating the crime; while in offences of great atrocity the

police have also a discretionary power to arrest offenders, even without warrants. Though in the particular instance the result is not much to be regretted, yet it is obvious that the admission of such a principle, and such an interpretation of the law, gives the police unlimited power of arrest, subject to the approval of their employers. Whether right or wrong the appeal therefore is dismissed, and the final sentence of death pronounced.

It seems that this verdict was submitted on the 24th of May, by the President of the Supreme Court, to the consideration of His Holiness the Pope, who offered no objection to its execution. The prisoner's last chance was gone, but with a cruel mercy he was left to linger on for eight months more in uncertainty. It was only on the 3rd of January that orders were sent from Rome to Perugia for the execution to take place on the 13th. The verdict of the Court is conveyed to the unhappy wretch. On the 14th, the last paragraph informs us, "the condemned LUIGI BONCI was beheaded by the public executioner, in the market-place of Perugia, and his head was then exposed for an hour to the gaze of the assembled multitude."

On the 16th the report from which these facts are taken was placarded on the walls of Rome. Whether the sentence was just or not it is impossible for me to tell. All I wish to point out is the absolute want of publicity to test the character of the evidence, the doubtful nature of the various trials, the manner in which strict law is disregarded from a clerical view of justice; and, more than all, the utter uncertainty, the unlimited protraction, and the hopeless secrecy of the whole course of law. The murder is committed in November, 1856; the murderer is arrested on the night of the crime, and for that crime he is not tried at all till May, 1858, and not executed till January, 1859. For three years and a quarter after the commission of the murder no report of any trial is published. The facts need no comment.

#### LETTER FROM GERMANY.

AUSTRIA AND THE SOUTH GERMAN STATES.

HANOVER, February 6th, 1860.

LIKE all the rest of Europe Germany is politically occupied with the two great questions of the day, the annexation of Savoy to France, and that of Central Italy to Piedmont. There exists a general presentiment that Austria is preparing for a well-measured spring, in which she will be aided at every risk by Hanover, Saxony, Bavaria, Hesse, and some of the lesser states. The reduction of Austria's power and influence but paves the way to their own annihilation. Overtopped and cowed by Prussia in Germany, their sovereignty would be nothing more than a name. The annexation of Savoy would destroy for ever the hopes of restoring German influence in Italy, and the peace of Villafranca would prove to be nothing but a snare and a deception. That Austria, knowing she has the sympathy of the great mass of Germans, will not stand with folded arms and wait till all her possessions in Italy be wrested from her by popular agitations and diplomatic trickery, may be regarded as very certain. Some journals in the interest of Prussia recommend the Cabinet of Vienna to sell Venice at once, rather than risk the expense and probably further losses of another war. To this, the Austrians reply that "such advice might be expected from nations whose immediate ancestors were beggarly emigrants, convicts, and cowards; but it is not the advice that the descendants of warriors will follow. Austria happily possesses a landed gentry, a proud nobility, who born to wealth have not been taught to grovel and cringe to acquire it, and therefore are not disposed to set so much value upon it as those who have had to acquire it by toiling and overreaching. The ambition of the Austrian is to be mighty and honoured, not merely gaped at by the world as a wonderfully successful speculator. Austria is unfortunate; she is ill-governed, her energies crippled, her liberties lost; but as long as she possesses her nobility she possesses honour, courage, and patriotism, and sooner or later these will restore her to life, liberty, and greatness. Austria depends not upon the genius or astuteness of one man, and therefore she will confidently bide her time." The officially inspired Austrian correspondent of Boersenhalle says:—"It lies in the will of FRANCIS JOSEPH to change by a single word or a dash of his pen, the present menacing situation of the empire, and to call forth in defence of his Italian possessions the whole youth of the warlike nation of Hungary. We dare affirm that at this very moment the force and authority of Austria might take such proportions as would preclude the necessity of her seeking alliances, but rather render her friendship of vital importance to certain other nations."—What this Imperial word would convey, since the Hungarian Protestant deputation has been refused an audience and the obnoxious Edict of 1st September has been confirmed by a new decree, it is difficult to guess. The Austrian Cabinet can hardly have forgotten the threatening attitude of the Hungarian people during the Italian war, and all the world is now aware that the dangers impending from that quarter of the empire mainly contributed to the hasty conclusion of peace. This the Cabinet admitted by making brilliant promises and even attempting some reforms. The promises have still to be fulfilled; the reforms are the Edict of September for the Hungarians; and, for Austria proper, the abolition, or rather the reconstruction, of the guilds upon a wider basis and more immediately under the control of the Government. The one measure has only exasperated the Protestants without gratifying the Catholics; and the other, as it at present stands, will but slightly tend to increase the population and industrial wealth of the nation. It is a step, indeed, in the right direction, but a very timid one.

The transactions of the Prussian Chambers are confined to

questions of local interest. The systematic opposition of the Feudalists to all ministerial measures completely nullifies the liberal tendencies of the Regent and his ministers. This was foreseen. The question is now being discussed whether the Sovereign does not possess the right of dissolving the Upper Chamber, and it is proposed to agitate for a new law with regard to the composition of this institution.—The Upper Chamber, as at present composed, represents exclusively the prejudices of the feudal nobility, which are palpably obstructive to all measures of progress. A statistical analysis of the members of this Chamber shows that sixty-five members belonging to different classes of the nobility occupy what are termed hereditary seats; the provincial *Grafen-Staemme* (Count-clans) have six; the family clans eleven; the ancient and entailed estates are represented by eighty-three members; the cathedral foundations have three; the hereditary great offices four; the towns twenty-seven, and the universities six seats. The Crown has summoned fourteen members and thirteen crown syndici. Three members bear the title of duke; twenty-six that of Fürst, or prince; seventy-six are counts; one Reichsgraf; four Burg-grafen; one Ober-Burg-grafen; twenty-six Freiherren, or baronets; fifty-six nobles without titles; and, lastly, forty-four commoners or burghesses.

The question of the Hessian Constitution is still unsettled. The Vienna Cabinet has recommended the Elector moderation, to which, however, he refuses to listen. Prussian interference he rejects with scorn; and so intense is his hatred of this latter power, that he has lately forbidden all religious and other foundations over which he has control to invest their capital in Prussian funds, recommending, on the other hand, those of Austria and Bavaria. The Elector feels strong in the support of Hanover, Saxony, and Bavaria, who appear to detest Prussia as heartily as he does. He is resolute in his opposition to the liberal portions of the Constitutions of 1831, and that of 1852, even such as are not objected to by the Diet, and no resource is left but an appeal to the Federal Diet for protection. This the Chambers are determined to do, and fully rely upon the countenance and support of Prussia. As an instance of the high-handed measures of the Elector, and the difficulties of the Government, Lieutenant-General HAYNAU, for refusing to accept the task of forming a new ministry, was ordered to quit his official residence in Cassel within forty-eight hours. In a town like Cassel it is not easy to procure a house of any dimensions at so short a notice, and the unlucky General was in danger of having to take up his lodging on the cold ground, with bag and baggage. Nevertheless, the General would doubtless have preferred it rather than be prime minister in Hesse under present circumstances.

The death of ERNST MORITZ ARNDT, which occurred on the 29th ult., has cast a gloom over the whole land. The SCHILLER celebration was political and theatrical, but the lamentation at the departure of this worthy patriot is as impressive as it is simple and natural. Every one who knows German knows ARNDT's songs. None are so universally popular, and none have contributed so much to excite that patriotism, which has become with Germans a sort of religious faith—an adoration. The distinguishing traits of this brave man and enthusiastic patriot were hatred of the French and all Latin nations, and an overweening pride of race. It was his aim to instil self-respect into the breasts of the Germans, and well he performed his part. ARNDT completed his ninetieth birthday on the 26th December, on which occasion he was inundated with congratulatory addresses from all quarters of Germany. The excitement and exertion of answering all these proved too much for the old man's worn out frame. A national subscription has been opened for the purpose of erecting a statue to his memory at Bonn.

#### RECORD OF THE WEEK.

HOME AND COLONIAL.

ON Monday, Feb. 6th, was announced the appointment of Mr. Hutt, M.P., as Vice-President of the Board of Trade.—On Wednesday, Feb. 8th, a public meeting of the inhabitants of Chelsea was held to consider measures to be taken to secure their enfranchisement. Mr. Torrens M'Cullagh made an able speech.—On the same day the London master builders published a report expressing their determination to hold out against the workmen yet on strike.—On the same day were published the Navy Estimates, showing an increase of £1,026,482 over those of last year.

The weekly riot at the church of St. George's-in-the-East was repeated with increased vigour on Sunday, Feb. 5th.—On Monday, Feb. 6th, three boys and an old woman were brought up at the Thames Police Court, charged with disturbances in the church of St. George's-in-the-East; admonished and discharged.—On Friday, Feb. 3rd, the two American mates, named Lane and Hires, accused of murder on the high seas, were finally committed to gaol until they can be sent to the United States for trial.—On Saturday, Feb. 4th, two convicts escaped from the custody of their guards by jumping out of the window of a train in rapid motion on the Great Western Railway; the following day they were recaptured unhurt.

On Tuesday, Feb. 7, was decided in the Court of Queen's Bench the case of *Welzenstein v. Stohwasser*, for detention of plaintiff's goods, and assaulting his wife by kissing her; verdict for defendant; jury considered plaintiff to have trumped up a case to extort money.

On Tuesday, Feb. 7, a butcher at Coventry, named Fawson, murdered his wife and committed suicide from jealousy.—On the same day an inquest was held on the body of a Spanish sailor,



stabbed in Welleclose-square; verdict "Wilful murder against persons unknown."

The weekly return of public health in London on *Wednesday, Feb. 8*, gives a slight improvement: deaths 1,389; births 1,943.

On *Saturday, Feb. 4*, died Captain Moorsom, R.N., aged 44; distinguished in China and in the Crimea; inventor of many improvements in artillery.

On *Sunday, Feb. 5*, a boat was upset in Shields harbour by gross carelessness; three seamen were drowned.

An eclipse of the moon took place on *Tuesday morning, Feb. 7*, at one o'clock; the weather was fair, and the phenomenon beautifully visible.

At the Great Ship Company's meeting on *Tuesday, Feb. 7*, a resolution was passed for an entire change of directors.—On *Thursday, Feb. 9*, at the half-yearly meeting of the South Western Railway Company, a dividend was declared of £5 5s. per cent.—On the same day, at Mincing Lane, the sugar market remained steady; refined lumps 51s. to 53s.; coffee very firm; tea trade steady at previous rates; brandy, Martell's 10s. 10d.; Jute sold at previous rates; tallow, firm; cotton, 100 bales sold; indigo, more spirit in the biddings.—On the same day, latest price of Consols was 94½ to ¾ for money, and 94½ to ¾ for the account. French Three per Cents. 67½, showing a fall of ½.

On *Sunday, February 5*, arrived the Bombay mail of 9th Jan.; the force for China is to be 20,000 men, of which 8000 natives, under Sir Hope Grant.—On *Dec. 18*, Major Honner routed the Waghers on the Abpoora; British loss, 16 killed, including Lieut. Lewis, 1st N. I., and forty wounded.

On *Monday, Feb. 6*, arrived the Australian mail. On the 29th Nov., the parliament of Victoria met; the Nicholson Cabinet were all re-elected.

On the same day the Nova Scotia mail was received. On *Jan. 26* the Earl of Mulgrave opened the session of the Assembly; Mr. Stewart Campbell was chosen Speaker.

#### FOREIGN.

On *Saturday, Feb. 4*, the *Moniteur* announced a reduction in the contingent of new recruits for the French army from 140,000 to 100,000.—On *Sunday, Feb. 5*, the Pope's Encyclical was read in all the churches in Paris, with a mandate from the Archbishop of Paris calling attention to the protest of the Holy Father.—On *Monday, Feb. 6*, numerous Sardinian officers were nominated to the *Légion d'Honneur*.—On the same day, Lord Cowley had a very long interview with the Austrian Ambassador.

On *Friday, Feb. 3*, Barons Vay and Prony, as a deputation from the Hungarian Protestants, were received at Vienna by the Emperor of Austria, who promised that in a legal way their legitimate desires should be soon satisfied.—On *Monday, Feb. 6*, martial law was proclaimed in Venice and Trieste, and on *Wednesday, 8th Feb.* in the rest of Venetia and in Mantua.—On the same day, at Vienna, Count Rechberg announced the rejection of the proposals of England by the Emperor Francis Joseph; Austria will not accede to the annexation of Central Italy to Piedmont.

On *Sunday, Feb. 5*, there was a demonstration at the French theatre at Nice in favour of French annexation.—The following day was an enthusiastic counter-demonstration at the Italian theatre of the same place.—On *Sunday, Feb. 5*, the Marquis de Cadore arrived in Rome from Paris, with instructions to Gen. Goyon to take measures for the preservation of order.

On *Monday, Feb. 6*, it was announced that England had offered a delay of three months from the 16th Feb. for regulating the redemption of the Stade dues; Hanover proposed a special agreement with England. On *Wednesday, Feb. 8*, England rejected this offer, and insisted on a general conference.

On *Saturday, Feb. 4*, Tetuan was taken by the Spaniards; great rejoicings in Madrid at the news.—On *Wednesday, Feb. 8*, O'Donnel was created Duke of Tetuan and a Grandee of the first-class; the ground on which the victory was won was given to him by Queen Isabella.

On *Wednesday, Feb. 8*, at Copenhagen, M. Rottwitz, President of the Council of Ministers, was seized with apoplexy, and died in a few hours.

On the 28th January, the Emperor Alexander gave a magnificent banquet at St. Petersburg to Marshal Prince Bariatinski; there were 350 generals present.

On *Wednesday, Feb. 8*, arrived the American mail; House of Assembly adjourned on 28th January, without electing a Speaker; the Senate was not in session.

At Colima, in Mexico, on the 20th December, Miramon, with 3000 men, is said to have defeated the Liberal forces under Rosas, numbering 7000, to have killed and wounded 700, and to have taken 2000 prisoners and five guns.

On *Thursday, Feb. 9th*, arrived telegrams in advance of China mail of 21st Dec.; the Chinese are fortifying Peking and the Peiho river, and have a picked army of 100,000 waiting for us.

Japan news is to 12th Dec. Trade has been stopped by the outrageous demands and insults of the Europeans; the British Consul has remonstrated against the conduct of the Europeans.

#### THEATRES AND ENTERTAINMENTS.

At DRURY LANE, Mr. E. T. Smith has revived, to the delight of Mr. C. Dillon's admirers, Sheridan Knowles's "William Tell." Mr. Dillon, still ambitious of expanding his recognised melodramatic

ability to tragic dimensions, gives his *Tell* somewhat too much fussiness. His acting must still be admitted to exhibit certain points worthy of praise, while its defects are by no means irremediable. He, in some parts, delivered the high-flown patriotism of the text with sufficient appropriateness and energy to secure great applause. *Emma* (*Tell's* wife) and *Albert* were played by Miss Tell and Miss Thirlwall respectively. Mr. Emery played *Gessler*: a rugged tyrant of the true Austrian school, profiting judiciously by the light thrown upon characters of the class and nation during the last few years.

A neat, amusing operetta, entitled "Romance," by Mr. Henry Leslie, of "choir" celebrity, was produced at COVENT GARDEN on the 2nd inst. The plot turns upon the determination of a certain *Lady Araminta Arabesque* (Miss Louisa Pyne), for an adventure—for mere romance sake—with *Dick Turpin*, and the siege and capture of her heart by *Captain Wildlove* (Mr. Harrison), who adopts the charming manner, costume, and mysterious conduct of the highwayman the better to please her fancy. The opera, which is styled a choral one, is, as might be expected of the composer's bent, rich in concerted pieces and duets, several of them of very great beauty. The ensemble, "Though wild has been the robber's fate," a *morceau* of the old school, with a very pretty burden. "Say, can you not divine?" "The Ball invites," and especially the "Welcome, Spring," may be cited as specimens. Mr. Honey, as the fussy mayor of York, has a good buffo song, "Important is my mission," and Mr. Harrison a sentimental serenade, "Look forth! look forth," to which they both do justice. Miss Pyne (whose exceedingly pretty costume is one of the most becoming we have seen her in), sings deliciously, and is justly encored in a ballad, "Poor silly heart, wouldst thou so bold?" which will, or we venture to say ought to, become popular. "Romance" has not yet had full justice done to it. As (we believe) the first opera of the maestro it is worthy of consideration. The overture, as well as much of the music, displays melodic invention, knowledge of harmony, and feeling for instrumentation; and when Mr. Leslie has mastered the airy as well as he has done the solid style of composition, to take a leading position among composers of opera. A word should not be wanting for the elegance of the *mise en scene*, à la *Louis XV.*, and the perfection of the band and chorus; and a hundred words would not be wasted in encouraging Mr. Harrison to persist in his loyal deviation from the ancient custom of wedding the best of music to the most execrable of doggerel. Mr. Palgrave Simpson wrote the agreeable libretto of "Romance." Mr. Wallace's new work, in preparation at this theatre, is highly spoken of.

At the PRINCESS'S THEATRE we lately had in "Home Truths," a play honouring the fair sex, domestic virtue, and affection. Mr. Holl has now given us three acts of easily versified comedy, called "Caught in a trap," whereof two thirds of the amusement is got out of sly innuendoes and home thrusts against the first if not the third of these three honourable things. A mere filament of plot, another of sense, another of action, and one more of probability, will twist into a tender yarn; and such is this "comedy," which has the air of an expansion of a French compression of a yet longer Spanish aboriginal. One *Don Juan de Sylva* (Mr. George Melville)—who has no scope here for developing the quality we thought lurked in him—lights during his travels with a comic servant of the regulation pattern (*Lopez*) Mr. Saker, upon a fair widow, *Donna Vittoria* (Miss C. Leclercq). In shepherd (and very hideous) guise he wins her. So does the valet her dueña (Mrs. Weston.) Clothed magnificently by her he becomes a presentable lover. His bliss is, however, interrupted by a summons from a match-making friend in Madrid, to repair to the capital and marry a certain heiress. He starts, swearing constancy and speedy return: but leaving also the letter of summons, from which the clever widow learns his treachery. To catch him in his own trap she seeks Madrid, and by luck at once obtains the post of dueña to her supposed rival, *Angelica* (Miss Clifford), daughter of old *Don Marcos* (Mr. F. Matthews). Once installed, she breaks down, in five minutes, the parental and most un-hidalgo-like will of *Don Marcos* that his daughter should espouse *Juan*; substitutes for him, also by consent of the parent, the rightful lover, *Don Valdez* (Mr. Cathcart); and forgetting her wrongs and her womanhood together, herself marries the remainder, viz., the *Juan* aforesaid. Miss Leclercq pleased us in some of her sprightly passages, displaying not mere stage vivacity, but natural spirit. Mr. F. Matthews, who had a very inferior part, succeeded in making the audience laugh heartily at his general denunciations of womankind, and his particular anxiety to be rid of his daughter as one of the sex. To Mr. Melville we cannot award the praise of being so light a comedian as the part demanded. Mr. Graham was picturesque and emphatic as the time-honoured retainer, *Montafan*. The piece, though, critically speaking, below mediocrity, may, from the "general public" point of view, be reported successful.

THE MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS gain new force and popularity each season. The mustard seed has so exceedingly prospered that we now hear of hundreds turned from the doors on Monday last; when, in addition to the standing corps of instrumentalists, playing from Beethoven and Mozart, Mr. Sims Reeves sang "*Adelaide*," accompanied by Miss Arabella Goddard; and this popular pianiste gave the fairly called "*plus ultra*" Sonata of Dussek, and joined the accomplished clarinet of Lazarus in Weber's delicious Sonata (E flat) for that instrument and the piano-forte. Miss Susannah Smart is progressing in popularity. Her old lullaby, "Golden slumbers kiss your eyes," was perhaps the most relished of the minor attractions on Monday evening.

## PARLIAMENT.

**FRIDAY** night, by consent, is allowed to be the Ministerial night. Important Government business is transacted; important and sometimes inconvenient questions are either answered frankly or adroitly evaded. Friday last was an example of the latter proceeding. Twenty-one questions were asked by twenty-one different members, each question embracing a new and a widely differing topic. The most important of the night was that put by Mr. KINGLAKE, relative to the rumours of continued naval and military preparations on the part of the French Emperor. Lord J. RUSSELL explained the present relations between England and France, which were in the highest degree satisfactory, and saw no reason for feeling alarm or jealousy at the naval or military activity of the French Emperor. Some explanations were elicited from Sir C. WOOD relative to Indian affairs. The Newspaper Bill passed through Committee.

On Monday the Lord CHANCELLOR laid on the table a Bill relating to joint stock companies, for the ostensible object of curing the glaring defects of the Winding-up Acts. From the few introductory words, it is doubtful whether the noble and learned lord's Bill is likely to deal effectually with the winding-up scandal as it exists; lawyers' Acts of Parliaments are proverbially inefficient for dealing with purely commercial questions. Lord BROUGHAM, in making a *pro forma* motion relative to County Courts, took occasion to point out the admirable working of these tribunals, and threw out a suggestion for extending their jurisdiction to sums above £50. In reply to a question, the Earl of RIPON referred to the patriotic offer of the services of the volunteers, and expressed a hope that in time the new force would become a permanent institution of the country. The principle of the Volunteer movement was, that it should be self-supporting, and independent of Government aid. Any departure from this principle, by seeking Government assistance, would alter the character of the body, and impair its utility. The numbers were now between seventy thousand and eighty thousand, and increasing daily.—Tuesday's discussions were of more than ordinary importance. Lord LYNCHURST drew attention to the mass of Bills just introduced by the Lord CHANCELLOR for the consolidation of the criminal law, and pointed out one case in which great carelessness was apparent in drawing at least one of the Bills. The Lord CHANCELLOR was obliged to confess that he had not read the Bills fully, only partially, but would look further into the matter. The Earl of DERBY then brought on that endless scandal, the disturbances at St. George's-in-the-East. After a severe censure on the author of these disturbances, the noble lord contended that scenes so disgraceful to religion could not be permitted to continue, and desired to be informed whether Government was willing to apply to Parliament for further powers to suppress them. Earl GRANVILLE was in accord with Lord DERBY in his censure on the clergyman on whom was to be charged these scandalous occurrences. He thought, however, the law was sufficiently strong, administered by magistrates, assisted by the police, to deal with offenders. Lord BROUGHAM, who appeared to sympathise more openly with the clerical than with the lay offender, hoped the Bishop would shut up the church if no other means were found sufficient to quell the Sunday outrages. The Bishop of LONDON intimated that this step had already been resorted to and found absolutely inefficient. His own notion of settling the question was for both parties to leave the matter in his hands, and to agree to abide by his decision. With this curious proposition the discussion dropped. The Savoy question, which is beginning to assume serious and important proportions, and to disclose hitherto unsuspected elements of European difficulty, was brought on by the Marquis of NORMANBY, who reviewed the unsatisfactory position of affairs, and the dubious conduct of France and Sardinia respecting Savoy and Nice. He called on the House to resist the new and dangerous doctrine that "a people, on the ground of nationality and speaking the same language, should be entitled to transfer their allegiance from one sovereign to another." Earl GRANVILLE had no positive assurance to give that the French Emperor did not contemplate the absorption of Savoy and Nice. The presumption, however, was on the other side; but assuming that France had a treaty with Sardinia for the surrender of a portion of her territories as a *quid pro quo* for services rendered, then the French Emperor would stand disgraced before the world as a despoiler of promises, and as one whose word was unworthy of credit. Earl GREY urged Government to ask the French Emperor for a positive disavowal of the designs imputed to him. The Earl of SHAFTESBURY considered the imputed designs of the French Emperor so pregnant with future danger to the peace and welfare, not of this country only, but of Europe, that he hoped both Houses of Parliament and the people of England would with one voice announce their disapproval; also that Sardinia would resist dismemberment by force of arms. This country had long protested against the traffic in human flesh; it was proper, therefore, that it should also protest against this new traffic in human rights. The Duke of NEWCASTLE threw oil on the troubled waters, by deprecating the warmth of Lord SHAFTESBURY, which he said was calculated to defeat the peaceable solution of this difficult question. Government had done all it could do by representations to avert the threatened annexation, and would continue in that course, without, however, contemplating a possible *casus belli*. Lord BROUGHAM was as much opposed to the annexation as any noble lord, but he hoped Lord NORMANBY's proposition for an address to the QUEEN on the question of the assumed absorption of Savoy and Nice by France would not be pressed to a division, as it might, from such a course, appear that there was a difference of opinion in the house, whereas every noble

lord entertained the same view of it. The Earl of DERBY, with great force, remarked that if this alleged proceeding were carried out, the parties who would most suffer would be the French Emperor and the King of Sardinia; the first for having belied all his protestations of disinterested views in his interference in the affairs of Italy, and the other for having made a venal bargain for selfish purposes. Lord STUART DE REDCLIFFE agreed with Lord DERBY, and gave it as his opinion, if the absorption took place, that the basis of future war among European powers would have been laid. The Marquis of NORMANBY, satisfied with the expression of opinion that had been elicited, withdrew his motion.

The disappointment on Monday was great and general, in consequence of the indisposition of the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER rendering it necessary to postpone his Financial Statement until Friday. In reply to Mr. BYNG, who wished to know whether Government intended to take further steps to suppress the Sunday rioting at St. George's in the East—Sir G. C. LEWIS did not consider the disturbances as outrages, and significantly added that he regretted the rector, BRYAN KING, should persist in questionable ceremonies and acts which were, in truth, the origin of the existing dissatisfaction and disturbances. The Police Commissioners, he considered, had made suitable arrangements calculated to prevent a positive breach of the peace. Several bills were moved a stage, and the House broke up at an early hour.—On Tuesday, Lord J. RUSSELL, in reply to a question, detailed the plan submitted by the English Government to France and Austria for the settlement of the Italian difficulty. As the answers of all the great Powers had not yet been received, it would not be expedient to lay the papers at that moment on the table. His Lordship, however, felt great hopes that the settlement of the difficulty was not far distant. Lord J. MANNERS asked leave to bring in a Bill to close the Divorce Courts to the public, on the ground that the prurient disclosures affected public morality. Mr. E. JAMES opposed the Bill, on the ground that the question had already been entertained and decided in the negative. Mr. ROEBUCK pungently remarked that he agreed with Swift in thinking that the "nicest persons had always the nastiest ideas." He should oppose the motion mainly on the ground that if the Court was closed the people would be shut out from a great theatre, where morality was taught. Lord R. CECIL was on the side of Lord J. MANNERS, Mr. MALINS and Mr. MACAULAY on the other. Sir G. C. LEWIS would oppose the Bill because it selected a particular Court, and was not sufficiently general in its application. The Bill was lost, on a division, by 268 to 83. Several Bills were introduced.—Wednesday was remarkable for being the first "field day," on which both parties mustered nearly their respective strengths. It was not, however, openly stated that the question was to be a party affair, though it was covertly understood, as the "ins" took one side and the "outs" the other, that it was as closely to approximate to a "pitched" battle as could be effected without being really of that significant character. The question was the Abolition of Church Rates. A large number of petitions heralded the introduction of the Bill by Sir JOHN TRELAHAWY. The main argument of the hon. baronet was, that the rate had been generally condemned not only by dissenters, but by members of the Church of England, as was evidenced by the number of petitions on the subject. The voluntary principle would be an efficient substitute for a compulsory rate, and by its adoption a great cause of strife would be abolished. Lord ROBERT MONTAGUE, by way of throwing out the Bill, moved that it be read that day six months. The question, he contended, was no longer one of conscience. The dissenters had thrown off the mask, and now openly declared that this Bill was another step toward effecting the severance of Church and State. Sir G. C. LEWIS would vote in favour of the Bill. Public opinion had changed, and this was the best excuse which could be alleged for change of opinion on the part of public men. Pew rents were a kind of Church rates, and a proper substitute for them. Mr. KEE SEYMOUR believed that the majority of the Church of England supporters were opposed to the abolition of Church rates, and especially to the substitution of pew rents for the impost. Mr. DISRAELI objected to the measure on the ground of its centralizing character. It was another blow at local government, and another addition to that central power to which legislation of late years appeared to tend. He did not think that the opposition to Church rates was based on conscientious scruples. He believed the Bill was calculated to strike a blow at a constitutional institution, and to substitute a mere speculative theory. The real question, though not then before the House, was whether there should be an Established Church at all. Lord FERMOY, with somewhat of Hibernian warmth of imagination, declared that if Church rates were abolished, it would get rid of contests and heartburnings in England, just as it had done in Ireland. Mr. PACKE and Mr. HUBBARD were against, Mr. THOMSON for the Bill, and on a division it was ordered to be read a second time, by 263 to 234.

On Thursday night Lord PALMERSTON said that he hoped if his right hon. friend the Chancellor of the Exchequer had not sufficiently recovered his strength to be enabled to enter on his financial statement, which must necessarily be of considerable length, to-morrow evening, that the House would indulge him by allowing its postponement until Monday. However, if the Chancellor of the Exchequer was not able to bring the budget forward to-morrow evening, his noble friend the Secretary for Foreign Affairs would lay on the table the commercial treaty with France. We have just room to notice also, that Sir F. KELLY moved for leave to bring in a bill for the prevention of bribery, and to amend the Corrupt Practices Prevention Acts, 1854.



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